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Visions and Decisions for the '80s
Consumer Education for the Decade Ahead

HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION · UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Visions and Decisions for the '80s

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The term *vision* has a variety of meanings. One of them is "prophetic insight" and another is "a dream." We'll allow ourselves some of each as we move into this next volume of *Illinois Teacher*.

If the prophetic insight includes realism, i.e., a prediction of what we think our society and our profession will be and do, what visions might we talk about? I'll risk a few and be interested in hearing yours.

> *"The 80's aren't out there. They lie within us and our present experience, and they will issue from us instead of happening to us."*
>
> Eugene Kennedy*

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(1) I think that inflation will continue for a considerable time and that our profession, our government, and all of us as individuals and families will have to find constructive ways to deal with it.

(2) I think human relations will continue to be our greatest challenge and that many groups, especially women, will have to expend tremendous energy to keep the trend toward increasing human rights moving.

(3) I think the fact that our population is aging will have both advantages and disadvantages for the society and will require adjustments in many quarters, including the profession of home economics.

(4) I think the waste of our non-renewable resources, especially energy, will have to be slowed, and our profession can have a part in seeing that all groups and all ages share equally in the needed belt-tightening.

(5) It seems likely that large numbers of our people will continue to view sex as mere pleasure and refuse to curb their appetites enough to avoid unwanted babies, or babies wanted by unprepared and irresponsible parents.

(6) I think that the pollution of our environment will continue but that progress will be made on many fronts though some, e.g., nuclear accidents and nuclear waste disposal, may get much worse before they get better.

(7) I believe that if we are cautious in selecting our government leaders we can avoid all-out war.

(8) I think that domestic violence is likely to continue and even to increase unless we do an unexpectedly good job in solving some of the other problems.

(9) I think that unemployment will be a major problem of those unemployed and their families, and a contributing cause of other problems, and that it will be high enough to be a significant problem for society for some time to come.

(10) Stress is sometimes listed as a problem, but we all need some stress. Recent research is indicating that too little stress is as incapacitating as too much and may produce the same symptoms. So the problem is the *management* of stress. We need to learn how much of what kind is optimum *for us* and how to control our life situation to keep it at that level. Just as we teach children to express their anger by pounding clay or playing fortissimo pieces on the piano, rather than by pounding their playmates, we can teach ourselves constructive and productive ways to handle stress. For myself, I find that when a difficult situation causes the adrenalin to run high, I can sometimes use it up with extra work at the office or extra physical labor and feel good later about how much I accomplished!

(11) Poverty, too, is often listed as a problem, but perhaps it should be thought of as the result of some problems (e.g., unemployment) and a contributing cause of others (e.g., malnutrition). If the poverty level is not too crushing, it can have positive aspects (as many of us who grew up in the Depression later realized) in that it provides a challenge. As Sylvia Ashton-Warner said in *Spearpoint*, "Affluence is one of our problems. The thing about deprivation is that it makes you dream,

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*All Kennedy quotations are from "The Looming 80's" in the *New York Times Magazine*, Dec. 2, 1979.

and a dream is a germ of living and exercises the imagination." The worst thing that poor people face is the effect on their self-concept when others look down on them for being poor. How many times have you heard teachers express opinions that those in low socio-economic status cannot learn, are lazy, or may even be dangerous? Each time I hear that I remind the speaker that when I was very poor I was just as able to learn as I am now, that my family worked just as hard as they ever did after becoming more financially able, that we were just as unlikely to steal or to harm anyone then as later.

(12) All of our predictions about our society and our profession do not have to be in the realm of problems. I also have a vision of our profession as growing and increasing in importance. I think we may even escape the "stitching and stewing" image, and though we may not achieve that in the decade of the '80s, we'll make significant progress on the start we have already made. Maybe we need to try the Laubach idea for erasing illiteracy: Each one teach one. Each home economist can surely teach more than one person (outside one's own family and students or clients) the value of the field and how the profession serves society.

(13) I think *schools* will continue (despite critics who write books about "de-schooling society") and that adult education will increase most rapidly.

(14) I think the number of people who put less emphasis on material things and more on human values will increase, though I would not expect the number to be tremendous in the '80s.

(15) The quality of life will be continually re-defined. We'll gradually accept that *everyone* has a right to certain aspects of a quality of life, and, indeed, that if everyone does not have them, none of us will, e.g., clean air to breathe. We'll even begin to recognize that people have the right to die and allow individuals more control over their own bodies at the end of life.

"In the 80's we can expect not something new but something that flows from, and is consistent with, what we have known so intimately in our national and personal experience during the last decade."

Eugene Kennedy

The Dreams

If we now think of another definition of *vision*, as a dream of what we would like to have as a reality, what could we suggest?

(1) I dream of a day when all people can respect each other despite their differences, disagree without being disagreeable, provide emotional support and help develop self-esteem for each other. Home Economists can be contributors toward this dream as we put more emphasis on teaching *principles* of human relationships via activities that allow learners to internalize them and use them. The '80s can move us along the road to that dream.

(2) I like to think about all children being wanted and all parents being prepared to give them a chance for optimum development. How far can we go on that one in the next ten years?

(3) I dream of a time when human beings can live in tune with the rest of nature so that there is no worry about "using up" the resources on which we depend. This means a limit on the number of human beings which our planet can support and a change in values for most of us which enables us to see ourselves in perspective, as part of the big picture.

(4) I dream of the profession of home economics as a large group of dedicated, hard-working women and men who recognize their own importance in *service* to society, who work together toward common goals, each one using his/her specialty in ways that all can see as consistent for the profession, and who are recognized by the society as important and necessary.

(5) I dream that we will eliminate teacher burnout.

(6) I dream that we will gather data that show that home economics teachers are improving the quality of life by helping to

(a) reduce child abuse and other domestic violence,
(b) improve consumer power and decision making ability,
(c) increase satisfaction in human relationships, especially family,
(d) improve nutritional status, and
(e) conserve non-renewable resources, especially energy.

(7) I dream of teachers in greater numbers being assertive enough to avoid letting administrators, students, parents, or others reduce their effectiveness and morale, while also avoiding aggressiveness

which ignores the rights of others.

(8) I dream of moral education that becomes effective so that we can all trust each other again. Part of this dream can occur when our parenting education includes the principle that children's moral development is influenced by growing up in contact with parents, and others significant to them, who stand for something, who let them know that the "old-fashioned virtues" are not outdated and that they affect the way human beings relate to each other at all levels, including international.

I think also that discussions in high school home economics classes can present the moral dilemmas that cause students to think about what is right or wrong and why, and help them grow to the next higher stage of moral development. Discussions need not exclude those things which some of us feel strongly against (e.g., cohabitation), and the discussion may help students to see all sides of a problem and reduce their desire to engage in certain behaviors or experiments.

> *"The 'no-fault' attitude of the past decades must yield to a new era in which Americans will rediscover 'personal guilt'—the acceptance of individual responsibility, shaping and forcing meaning on our actions and recognizing our great dependence upon one another."*
>
> Eugene Kennedy

(9) I dream of recruiting more able women *and men* into teacher education programs in home economics, and of great universities placing more importance on undergraduate education so that we give them the best preparation of which we are capable. I dream of increasing numbers of teachers feeling as competent in other areas as they have felt in cooking and sewing, and knowing how to use activity-oriented techniques to teach all areas.

I dream of the profession giving increased attention to who enters and who remains in the profession. Ineffective persons in any profession need to be weeded out.

The Decisions

Some of the decisions that I think we will face in the '80s are implicit in my predictions and dreams. They are suggested by the following questions.

How are we, as families and as a nation, going to manage inflation?

How are we, as families and as a nation, going to get along with each other?

How are we going to adjust to fewer children and more older people in our population and to give the latter an opportunity to be first class citizens, to continue to make a contribution to society and to be respected?

How are we going to protect our natural resources and manage to have a high quality of life for all, including unborn generations?

How can we help all people to develop a positive self-concept and reach their maximum potential, including those who are born as unwanted children, and those who are now being referred to as "displaced homemakers?"

How can we protect ourselves and others from violence, including domestic violence?

How can we keep our stress at an optimum level?

How can we keep home economics growing and increasing in professionalism?

How can we keep ourselves employed and help others to have this opportunity?

How can we clarify and prioritize our values so as to promote satisfying life experiences for ourselves and others?

How can we improve our schools and help all, children and adults, to experience the joys of lifelong learning?

How can we increase our own "staying power" and eliminate burnout as professionals and help others to do the same?

How can we maintain or improve our own and others' physical and mental health?

How can we improve our decision-making ability and our power as consumers?

There will be other decisions, too—some we don't dream of now—just as the people around Mt. St. Helens are making decisions they didn't know they would have to make. Each of the decision areas will involve hundreds of separate decisions, large and small. Hence the need to keep our minds clear, gain all the knowledge we can, learn from each decision, and understand that we must work together.

Decisions and Wellness: Consumer Decisions in the Health Area

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Every day we make decisions that influence health. Some of these decisions when made at the national or community levels affect the lives of hundreds of thousands of people. For example, the decision of Congress not to make national health insurance available leaves many without access to health care; the decision of developers to build dwellings over a chemical dump has been linked to a high incidence of cancer in a New York community. Personal decisions made by the individual are less dramatic, but nevertheless also have a major impact on health. The decision to drink alcohol, to drive after drinking, to smoke or not to smoke, to exercise or not to exercise, to buy health insurance, to seek medical help or to practice stress reducing techniques are all factors that have been shown to affect the wellness of individuals.

Decisions for or against health may also have a major impact on the lives of others. A recent study of the cost of medical care showed that 13 percent of the patients in 6 hospitals surveyed in 1976 accounted for half of the expenses. Among these high cost patients, potentially harmful habits including drinking, obesity and smoking were indicated substantially more often than among low-cost patients. The researchers recommended that people with harmful habits should pay higher insurance rates since the cost of their practices is ultimately borne by everyone.[1]

Positive and Negative Decision Making for Health

Why do some people make self-enhancing decisions and others make potentially self-destroying decisions? The reasons are, of course, complex and probably unique to each individual, but a few explanations that have been suggested include lack of information, conflicting value systems, lack of self-confidence, lack of love and the present of excessive stress.

Lack of Information. It has been estimated that from 50-80% of all illnesses are stress-related in origin. Peptic ulcer, ulcerative colitis, bronchial asthma, hay fever, arthritis and hypertension are accepted by even the most conservative sources as stress-related or psychosomatic.[2] Yet, comparatively few people are aware of documented approaches to reduce excessive stress such as meditation, autogenic training or biofeedback.

Meditation is a simple, easily learned skill for allowing the mind to effortlessly settle down to a state of deep relaxation. The Transcendantal Meditation (TM) technique, one of the most widely practiced forms of meditation used in the West, requires that a person sit quietly for 20 minutes twice a day and think a one- or two-syllable word called a "mantra" that has been assigned by the TM teacher.

More research has been done on TM than on other types of meditation and a variety of benefits have been reported in the literature. For example, Wallace and Benson studied people who regularly used the TM technique and found that arterial concentration of lactate, a chemical sometimes correlated with anxiety, dropped four times faster in meditators than in simple rest. Galvanic skin resistance, an indicator of relaxation also increased fourfold in some cases.[3] Orme-Johnson found that meditators showed greater stability in response to stress as measured by three indicators of autonomic reactivity.[4]

Meditation produces a pattern of response in which an inhibition of the sympathetic nervous system occurs. Because it improves one's reaction to stress, it may also be effective in alleviating some stress-related disorders such as hypertension. Continuous anxiety states produce incessant arousal of

[1]Christopher Zook and Francis Moore. "High Cost Users of Medical Care," *New England Journal of Medicine*. 302, No. 18 (May 1, 1980): 996-1002.

[2]Kenneth Pelletier, *Mind as Healer, Mind as Slayer*, (New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1977) p. 7.

[3]Robert Keith Wallace and Herbert Benson, "The Physiology of Meditation," *Scientific American*, 226, (1972): 84-90.

[4]David Orme-Johnson, "Autonomic Stability and Transcendental Medication," *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 35 (1973): 341.

the sympathetic nervous system, and prolonged arousal of the sympathetic nervous system has been implicated in a wide range of stress related disorders from high blood pressure to cancer.[5, 6]

Autogenic training, widely practiced in Europe, involves a series of exercises designed to induce distinct physical sensations that lead to deep relaxation of a physical nature. When practiced correctly and regularly, a state of mind and body is achieved that has many of the same characteristics as the low arousal state achieved through meditation.

Biofeedback is a process for amplifying biological signals. These signals are fed back to the patient who can see precisely how he is functioning. For example, people can actually see how tense they are in certain muscles by observing the electrical signals on the instrument screen. Through trial and error they can then discover the means for relaxing the tensed muscles. The feedback lets them know immediately how successful they are. Biofeedback has been effective in regulating a number of body processes including lowering blood pressure, treating migraine headaches and retraining specific muscle groups following partial paralysis.

Conflicting Value Systems. If a person has been taught to think of food as a reward, it may be difficult to change the habit of considering food a pleasurable activity instead of a way to satisfy reasonable hunger. The difficulty may not be lessened even though the person has been educated to the hazards of overeating and the benefits of consuming moderate amounts of vitamin- and mineral-rich foods. Similarly, the person who has learned to value competition and busy-ness for its own sake may find great difficulty in sitting quietly and meditating for 20 minutes twice a day even though aware that benefits to health are likely to be substantial. The individual who values giving to others at considerable personal sacrifice may consider taking time to be alone to be an act of selfishness. (It is not, of course. Everyone needs private time. The failure to take time for oneself may by itself produce stress that can interfere with healthy social and family relationships.)

Lack of Confidence. Lack of confidence in one's ability to make sound decisions may result in dependency on others for decisions about one's own welfare. Conventional wisdom says that if you don't feel good, you should see a doctor. Physicians are supposed to then make you well or at least improve your healthfulness. Yet, it has been estimated that as many as 85% of the ailments brought to a general practitioner will subside regardless of what the doctor does, and 5% will get worse.[7]

Lack of Love. The nutritionist, Emanuel Cheraskin, has postulated that illness is the outward manifestation of a lack of love. According to Cheraskin, "ill" may be thought of as standing for "I lack love"—love enough to make a salad, to use a seat belt, not to smoke, to take time to meditate, to exercise.[8] Most people have also known someone who has found love and attention only through illness. For some, this is the way they have learned to satisfy the critically important human need for affection and caring. This person has great difficulty in finding ways of relating that will bring love and support without requiring justification by illness.

Social and family relations are a basic source of love and support. The importance for health of support from social and family ties is illustrated in a 1976 study of Japanese Americans in California. The Japanese Americans who clung to the traditional Japanese culture in America had lower levels of heart disease than those who did not, even when factors like diet, blood pressure and smoking were taken into account. Interestingly, the traditional Japanese culture emphasizes strong community ties and support of the individual by people around him, whereas the traditional American emphasis is on achievement by the hard-working, competitive, ambitious person who functions autonomously, independent of family and neighbors.[9]

Similar findings occurred in a study of Italian immigrants who established the town of Roseto, Pennsylvania in 1882. Over the years, the Rosetans maintained a homogeneous community with a high level of mutual supportiveness, holding on to many of the customs and values of the former peasant way of life. While some prospered, they did not separate themselves from their neighbors. They dressed the same, socialized freely and invested their wealth back into the community. A high

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[5] R. A. Sternbach, *Principles of Psychophysiology*, (New York: Academic Press, 1966).

[6] Carl Simonton and Stephanie Simonton, "Belief Systems and Management of the Emotional Aspects of Malignancy," *Journal of Transpersonal Psychology*, 7, No. 1 (1975): 29-48.

[7] Walter McQuade and Ann Aikman, *Stress* (New York: E. P. Dutton Co., 1974): 175.

[8] Emanuel Cheraskin, M.D., in a speech given at the 5th Annual Holistic Health Conference, San Diego, California on September 1, 1979.

[9] Kenneth Pelletier, *Mind as Healer, Mind as Slayer*. pp. 101-102.

intake of animal fat and obesity were characteristic, yet the Rosetans had an incidence of death from myocardial infarction that was less than half that of surrounding areas.[10] Rosetans who moved to New York and New Jersey experienced a significant increase in death by myocardial infarction and coronary heart disease.

It would appear that in societies where relationships to others are well defined and accepted, psychosocial stress is substantially reduced. If stress is minimized, then neurophysiological reactions are reduced, and the benefits are seen in improved health of the community members.

Stress. Stress can influence the decisions a person makes and, as has been suggested, can also be a result of decisions. Excessive stress may interfere with clear thinking. Stress is a physiological reaction in response to real or imagined threats to one's well being and is a reaction to sudden or substantial life changes, both positive and negative. Some stress is necessary and important for optimal functioning, but prolonged, unabated negative stress may ultimately lead to illness.

Enhancing Healthful Decision Making

Managing Stress. Reactions to potentially stressful forces are influenced by an individual's perception of the event, the type of conditioning a person has been subjected to and the coping mechanisms available to the person. Modifying any of these three variables can alter the outcome of a potentially stress producing episode and result in greater or less wellness.

Events may be perceived as stressors to one person whereas to another they may have no stress meaning. If one perceives an event as a stressor, it is obvious that the decisions made relating to it will be different than if it is not experienced as stressful. For example, the adult who reacts to the loss of a relationship with panic and fear may be replaying the childhood script that occurred when a parent died and the possibility of abandonment was a genuine threat to the child's existence. Yet as an adult, the person is not at risk for survival, even though the unconscious mind signals the body to react as if survival were at stake.

When one becomes aware of the discrepancy between the actual and perceived reality of the "now" situation, stress reactions sometimes remarkably vanish. Because some of these childhood scripts are deeply imprinted, psychotherapy may help provide a better match between one's perceptions and the reality of the event. Conscious thinking may also neutralize the intensity of stress by putting events, goals and ideas into a different perspective through conscious thinking. Words give powerful signals to the brain, and even consciously thinking "I prefer to meet this goal" rather than "I *must* meet this goal" can modify the strength of the stressor.

The way in which one has been conditioned is a factor in healthfulness. Positive and negative self-concepts are learned as is the perception of oneself as having the ability to manage stressful situations. Nutritional habits and preferred lifestyles also tend to result from conditioning. The person who has a strong sense of self, who has confidence in the ability to control stressful situations, who has sound nutritional habits and a healthy lifestyle, will tend to make growth-enhancing decisions that lead to wellness. Growth-enhancing reactions can also be developed or strengthened through learning to use stress-reducing processes such as biofeedback, meditation and/or relaxation, as was discussed earlier. Growth-enhancing decisions can be strengthened through seeking nutritional counseling, general health counseling or life style counseling.

The approaches one has learned for coping with stress can powerfully influence the direction of healthfulness. The person who can hardly wait for the double martini after a hard day at work instead of seeking out the closeness of a supportive friend or spouse, is choosing a potentially self-destructive way of dealing with stress. Reaching out for support, ventilating one's feelings, and talking about problems with a trusted friend, or relative, dissipate the unchanneled energy of stress reactions and are healthy coping strategies.

Health Hazard Appraisal. The Society of Prospective Medicine at the Methodist Hospital of Indiana in Indianapolis has developed a program for the promotion of healthfulness that begins with an assessment of an individual's 10 year chance for survival. Using a "Health Hazard Appraisal," present risks to health are compiled and future risks are estimated. Factors such as weight, smoking, exercise, alcohol consumption, use of seat belts and a variety of psychological items are considered. On

[10]C. Stout, J. Morrow, E. Brandt, and S. Wolf. "Unusually Low Incidence of Death from Myocardial Infarction: Study of an Italian American Community in Pennsylvania." *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 188 (1964): 845-849.

completion of the Appraisal, the results are computer scored and the individual is compared to his own peer group. A determination is then made about whether the person is above or at an average in terms of risk, and a health hazard age is given. For example, a person aged 45 might have a health hazard age of 50 if engaged in negative life style activities. In other words, the chosen life style is placing the person at risk of decreasing the length of his life by 5 years.

John Travis and Susan Reichard, authors of the "Wellness Inventory" hypothesize that illness is one outcome of a developmental process which can be altered toward increased health. According to their theory, the natural history of a disease progresses in a series of 7 stages:

Stage 1—This is a "no risk" period of early life when there is the least likelihood of a severe disease occurring.

Stage 2—Age and environmental conditions exist which place the person at risk and make the person more vulnerable to disease.

Stage 3—A physical agent or psychosocial situation is present which causes high levels of stress. During this stage the individual smokes, consumes alcohol, or engages in other activity which is a precursor of disease.

Stage 4—Definite clinical signs of disease appear, but the individual is unaware of these signs.

Stage 5—Clear symptoms are present such as pain, blood in the urine or hemorrhage, and the individual seeks medical help.

Stage 6—Disability is present. The person has sought medical care; he is now in acute pain. Disease and disorder are present. If the symptoms are not adequately noted or treated, death results.

Stage 7—Death occurs.[11]

Medical care has traditionally focused on stages 5 and 6. Multiphasic screening and other regular physical examinations are efforts to alter the course of a disease at stage 4. But stages 2 and 3 are points at which the individual can most effectively influence healthfulness. It is at these stages that personal decisions are most likely to alter the historical pattern of disease.

Conclusion

To a greater extent than is generally believed, people are the masters of their own destinies. Throughout life, decisions are made that can result in poorer or better health. A great source of personal power becomes available when a person realizes that responsibility for health lies within. At several stages in the history of disease one can decide for greater harmony with the environment, with peers, with oneself, and consequently decide for greater wellness. The decision for greater healthfulness may also be for greater fulfillment in all aspects of life.

Health or disease is dependent on internal factors such as perceptions and volition at least as much as on external factors such as bacteria, radiation, crowding, poverty and all the factors related to stress. There can be no doubt that these external factors predispose persons toward health and illness. But among the most important factors in the course of a person's life are one's internal will and the decisions made as a result of that volition.

Because human beings are complex, any single decision to improve health practices is unlikely to be any more effective than an approach to illness that focuses on a single cause of disease. For example, the notion that a single decision will produce health, e.g., nutrition, self-knowledge, jogging or meditation, will likely lead to disappointment. Rather, a holistic approach is needed that attends to all those factors and the uniqueness of the individual as well. People can modify the pictures of reality they carry in their minds, they can overcome early conditioning, and they can take full responsibility for choices made freely. By so doing they become active participants in the profound transformations possible when this type of approach to health is implemented, and indeed, may be instrumental in positively influencing the health of others around them.

[11]Kenneth Pelletier, *Mind as Healer, Mind as Slayer*, pp. 314-315.

Stress: Help and Hindrance

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The tension starts when you reach to turn off the alarm clock. "What have I planned for today?" "Do I have cafeteria duty again?" "I'm dreading that parent conference." "Will I have to cope with many discipline problems today?" "I'm looking forward to the lessons I have planned." By the time you've crossed the threshold into those hallowed hallways you are feeling the symptoms of tension mounting. [1,3]

These stresses may have both good and ill effects upon teachers. A reasonable amount of stress is necessary; otherwise we would never have that "nervous" excitement that gets us "up" for a difficult task. This stress gives us the energy to do our best at something.

Maintaining a positive attitude toward a reasonable amount of stress and managing it within reasonable limits gives us a competitive edge. Too much stress limits our performance and too little stress takes away motivation. Too much stress steals the energy we would like to have for even the enjoyable activities in our lives. Too little stress doesn't give us the "spark" to do our best. Recognizing that certain stresses are normal, desirable, and functional reduces the ill effects. A reasonable level of stress is characterized by excitement and motivation with energy available for many worthwhile activities.[2]

Poor management of stress is indicated by constant tension that causes behavioral change detrimental to the body. The results of not coping with these stresses may be fatigue, irritability, inability to relax, and eventually hypertension, heart disease, ulcers, insomnia, and lowered resistance to disease.[3]

The inability to manage stress is prevalent in the nation's schools. Teachers who always get terrific amounts of work done and who seem extremely busy may be poor managers. Take a closer look at them. Are they "burning out"? Some seem to be rushing themselves as well as rushing the people around them: "Hurry, hurry. There are not enough hours in the day or minutes in the class period."

They are usually doing two things at once; e.g., grading papers in the faculty meeting, calling a parent while they are reading their mail or eating lunch while reading a textbook or planning with another teacher. These people are willing to take on more and more duties and are really overextended. They can't slow down. They can't cope with interruptions and they become irritable and grouchy because someone or something takes them off schedule.

Teachers may be victims of stress more often than any other profession, perhaps because teachers have so many "bosses" to please. Teachers are held accountable for the behavior of their students and they are expected to make those students learn. The school administration, colleagues, parents, and students are all the "bosses", and they often have conflicting goals. [4,9] The responsibilities are awesome when the tremendous amount of physiological, psychological and social variables are compounded by the number of persons a teacher interacts with everyday.

Sources of Stress

A study of these physiological, psychological, and sociological sources of stress will help to identify and anticipate specific incidences causing the stress. An awareness of the possibility of stress is the first step in coping.

Physiological sources of stress are those variables causing strain on the bodily functions. Illness, poor nutrition, fatigue, lack of sleep, and infrequent exercise cause stress within the body. There is a vicious cycle that begins with a neglected body which causes increase in stress from other sources which then increase difficulty with bodily functions. Are you abusing your body by not giving yourself a few minutes to relax during the work day, eating on-the-run or skipping meals, or working even though you are ill. The body sends stress messages in the form of headaches, indigestion, backaches, insomnia.

The process of trying to please students, parents, administrators, and colleagues, in addition to pleasing the other special people in the personal life can drain a person physically as well as emotionally. Dealing with personal emotions as well as the emotions of other persons is the psychological source of stress. Attempting to meet the expectations of all these people can lead to feelings of frustra-

[1]Numbers refer to references at end of article

tion and a general sense of helplessness.

A defense mechanism that teachers often use is that they deny their feelings. They make excuses for feeling angry or frustrated because they "just had a rough day". This defense takes a lot of energy by itself. To bottle up these feelings can be psychologically dangerous.

There are many sociological factors that determine the way persons act. Teachers are aware of parental and peer pressures on student behavior. Often the teacher has little or no control over some of this behavior. When the students' goals are opposed to the teacher's goals, a great deal of stress may be present. There is a constant push-pull on the individual caused by standards and goals set by other persons.

The physiological, psychological, and social factors related to stress will always be present. The stress takes place when the condition is ignored or the response is inappropriate. Being aware of the signs and the causes of stress and looking for alternative behaviors can reduce the destructive effects of this condition.

Signs of Stress

Some of the signs of stress are also signs of medical disorders. Care should be taken in determining which cause is operating.

Some of the signs of stress that have been seen in teachers include the following:[5]

- Wringing of hands, picking or biting nails
- Pallor, rashes, dandruff or other changes in the skin
- Shaking which is not caused by a medical palsy
- Squirming, hyperactivity, flitting from one job to another without finishing anything
- Verbalizing protests as a form of rationalization "If the kids don't learn, it's not my fault."
- Protesting non-verbally, e.g., being consistently late or absent from meetings where your input is important or not listening attentively
- Excessive talk in the form of rambling, defensiveness, or non-problem-solving verbalizations
- Emotionally withdrawing from anxiety as if in a state of apathy when the real feeling is intense
- Denial of reality, e.g., saying "Everything is fine," when there is frustration, anger, or depression
- Lashing out verbally or physically when it is inappropriate; e.g., "Don't bother to answer, you don't know anything anyway!"
- Displacing aggression on family member or others when the threat of confronting someone at school is too great. How many family fights start in school?

Being aware of these signs and making written or mental notes can help to identify the recurrence of stressful situations. Determining the source of the problem and identifying the alternative solutions can help one choose an action to eliminate or to cope with the cause of the stress.

Dealing with Stress

It is impossible to eliminate all stressful situations. Through careful analysis of career and family life parameters, alternative courses of action may be found which eliminate the cause of the stress entirely. In other cases methods of coping with or reducing the stress are the only course of action available. The following is a list of suggestions for coping with stress[5,6,7,8] which may be helpful. These suggestions may imply other effective alternatives for the reader:

- Having a physical check-up to ascertain whether stress has a physical cause
- Making a list of stresses and contracting with yourself to change those that are possible and to find methods for coping with the others
- Altering your daily routine; e.g., getting up a little earlier to read the paper quietly, sip a beverage (not a caffeine drink), listen to music, or take a bath
- Taking a new route to work to avoid the rushing highways
- Talking about something positive that happened during the day as soon as you get home (This will help you to start looking for the good things occurring rather than dwelling on the negative.)
- Varying your dinner hour by having a small, nutritious snack and dining later when you are more relaxed
- Being aware at all times of the good things—the beautiful sky, the songs of birds, the warmth of a coat, the comfort of an easy chair, or pleasing color combinations
- Taking your watch off and reducing the beat-the-clock syndrome
- Avoiding rushing other people
- Taking breaks away from the work; e.g., going to the faculty room or library or outside when the weather is nice, or reading something light or working on a craft to get a change of pace
- Finding a hide-away at work to concentrate on relaxing for a few minutes, breathing deeply or meditating
- Thinking about what you have accomplished rather than what you didn't get done
- Being good to your body by regular, vigorous exercise, diet, and adequate rest

- Developing a support system, e.g., finding someone who will listen to your problems and remain confidential (There is an emphasis in some universities to prepare counselors for the teachers.[5])
- Learning to identify your feelings and to express them appropriately (Feelings—love, hate, anger, envy, frustration, fear—are natural. It is the fear of inappropriate behavior that makes us suppress them. Verbally acknowledging that these feelings exist releases some of the tension so that we can cope with it.)
- Showing your enthusiasm, asking for student cooperation, telling students what your feelings are, and encouraging them to tell you theirs
- Being willing to try alternatives to stressful situations that occur often
- Living in the "here and now" without the heavy baggage of things that happened in the past or worries about the future. We can *learn* from the past and *plan* for the future without causing emotional strain.

Learning healthy ways of dealing with stress isn't easy. The topic of stress in teaching, in family life, and in careers is being given a great deal of attention. Research studies, planned and in process, will analyze the effects of working conditions, nutrition, human relationships, and physical health on stress. The general conclusion is that management of stress takes time, effort, motivation, and support from others. We can consider the enjoyment that is possible and try to reach our ideal level. We will benefit, our family will grow, and our students will be affected by these concomitant learnings that we are subtly teaching.

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Human Relations Training: The Missing Catalyst in the Home Economics Education Curriculum

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Student teaching as a field-based practicum is generally accepted as the single most important learning experience in the process of professional education of teachers. Research has shown that there are predictable patterns of student teaching concerns emerging from these experiences, the majority of which are found to be related to problems of human relationships. Fuller (1967) reported isolation of the following six sequential concerns:

1) Where Do I Stand?	(Concerns for security in total school situation)
2) How Adequate Am I?	(Concerns of subject matter adequacy and class control)
3) Why Do They Do That?	(Concerns of individual student behavior)
4) How Do You Think I'm Doing?	(Concerns of evaluation of supervisor)
5) How Are They Doing?	(Concerns of evaluation of pupil learning)
6) Who Am I?	(Concerns of self-knowledge)

Considerable evidence now indicates that effective teachers not only must know their subject matter and how to present it in a "learnable" way, but must also be skilled in interpersonal communication.

Recent studies including one at the University of Northern Colorado (Dahms, 1972, pp. 124-25) indicated that good teaching is not determined solely on the basis of teaching technique or the acquisition of knowledge. Instead, the following four variables which did emerge as indicators of effective teachers were each related to teachers' perceptions and reflected positive attitudes concerning human relationships: (1) People were seen as top priorities, as being more important than things; (2) other people were perceived as basically able to meet the demands in their own lives, as trustworthy and dependable; (3) the self was perceived as an attractive being, adequate to meet the demands of life, with feelings of belonging in the world; and (4) professional tasks were perceived as freeing people, rather than controlling, and encouraging openness, rather than pushing toward pre-defined goals.

Research studies in home economics education also have found that certain affective characteristics of the teacher correlate positively with teaching effectiveness. Shear (1971) reviewed several studies all of which implicate affective abilities as a factor in successful teaching. Included were those by Ray on teacher concerns, Loftis on teacher commitment, Murray on teacher self-actualization, and Lehman on matters dealt with in the "Just Suppose Inventory."

One of the basic premises of the Texas Project (Fuller, 1967), an intensive study of the student teacher preparation program at the University of Texas at Austin, was that changes need to occur in teachers—in how they think, feel, and respond, as well as in what they know. It was postulated that if this is so, the primary job of teacher education is to maximize experiential learning for prospective teachers.

Although considerable evidence documents the need for developing appropriate affective behaviors as teaching competencies, a perusal of teacher education curricula most often reveals a glaring omission of such opportunities. Instead, there is a widespread belief that if cognitive information is learned there will be a corresponding development of affective behaviors. However, according to Krathwohl (1964: 20), "the evidence suggests that the affective behaviors develop when appropriate learning experiences are provided for students much the same as cognitive behaviors develop from appropriate learning experiences."

Some educators and legislators are responding to this need for affective competencies as evidenced by the actions of several states which now require human relations training for teacher certification (Asbury, 1971). Shear (1971) reported one such venture at the Pennsylvania State University, where human relations training was included as a part of the home economics education program. General purposes were stated to be increased self-insight and awareness, increased sensitivity to the behavior of others, increased awareness of group process, increased skill in day-to-day functioning as a person and in groups, and increased skill in learning how to learn.

The literature documents significant improvement of skills in interpersonal communication as a result of human relations training of undergraduates, graduates, and in-service teachers (Blazer, 1973; Bixler, 1972; Taylor and Barnes, 1970; and Hornsby, 1973). However, studies by Taylor and Barnes (1970) and Asbury (1971) which had objectives to improve empathic understanding and to establish more effective communication skills have demonstrated that significant gains in responding skills cannot be expected with less than twelve clock hours of training.

Personal and Professional Growth Seminar

Although the need for and efficacy of human relations training in pre-service education has been demonstrated, there is presently at no point in the structure of the professional program at Southwest Texas State University an appropriate amount of time available for such training. Also, while provisions are made in the current sequence of professional courses for a time of sharing experiences of student teaching during the process, no time is allowed for a sharing of concerns or re-entry problems at the conclusion of the field experience. It is on the basis of these findings that this project was conceived and implemented.

Goals. As a culminating experience of student teaching, a three day debriefing seminar followed the final week of field experience. It afforded opportunities for both a sharing of professional concerns and a program of human relations training for home economics teacher education candidates. This integrating experience was optimally timed to capitalize on the subjects' recently acquired insight and awareness concerning needs of self and others which have been demonstrated to be concomitant with the directed field experience. The seminar provided a safe climate in which participants could receive feedback which would enable them to achieve their potential and to have an opportunity to explore blocks which prevented them from fulfilling this potential. The ultimate hope was that participants would be able to make better, more fully examined choices, personally and professionally. The final seminar focus was one which enabled each participant to formulate his or her own professional and personal growth plans, including specific means of attainment.

Facilities. Success of the seminar was greatly facilitated by the setting, which was 150 miles from the University, at Singing Hills, one of the five campsites located on the HEB Foundation at Leaky, Texas. This facility, which is offered free of charge to qualifying groups by the H. E. Butt family of Corpus Christi, Texas, includes 1,900 acres of nature's most attractive offerings, including hills, valleys, streams, Indian mounds, lakes, native and imported wildlife, and continuously flowing springs. Expenses for meals, transportation, and program personnel were covered by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, Austin, Texas.

Program Personnel. Fleck (1974) warns that in the use of any human relations training, the first caution to be observed is that only qualified persons should attempt to lead. The literature abounds with reports of enterprising opportunists who have capitalized on the interest in human relations training. In our project great care was exercised in the selection of those who would lead. The program personnel included a team of six qualified trainers headed by Dr. Jev Sikes, counseling psychologist, Southwest Texas State University. All had had prior experience working with teacher groups. At least three of the team leaders were trained at Bethel, Maine, at the Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, established in 1947. Other personnel included the student teaching supervisor; and I, as head of teacher education in the Department of Home Economics, coordinated the sessions and led a wrap-up of student teaching concerns.

Subjects. A second caution concerning this type of training was sounded by the American Medical Association (September 27, 1971: 1021) who warned that such training is not a form of medical treatment and that no emotionally disturbed participants should be included in such groups because of the possibility of adverse reactions. The seminar participants were twenty-four Home Economics teacher education candidates from Southwest Texas State University who were considered to be sufficiently stable emotionally. This belief was based on both the careful screening of the student as a teacher education candidate and the students' prior personal contact with the Home Economics department personnel in charge of teacher education.

Also, nine Southwest Texas State University professors who supervise student teaching experiences were included as participants. No distinction was made between student and faculty members in the training groups. In fact, great effort was expended to involve all participants equally and to guard against "gatekeepers"—Lewin's (1943) terminology for group members who have strong control over the thinking and actions of other participants.

Procedures. Objectives related to human relations were accomplished by providing eighteen hours of training and practice in the skills of listening, communicating, being assertive, and developing flexibility. Although the three-day program format was loosely structured to provide free time for exploring and experiencing the beauties of the natural setting, the training sessions were tightly structured and highly task-oriented toward a sharing of self and self-learning.

Various group structures were used: (1) Groups of five or six enabled each person to participate and receive response from leaders and others. (2) The fishbowl structure, with inner and outer circles, was especially effective in teaching listening and responding skills. (3) In the non-threatening large group structure, the participants could hear from many different people and were free to respond or not. The sessions were begun with a large group orientation. The exercise was usually a small group activity while the processing of the experience which enabled the participants to realize what they had learned was often done in the large group.

The leaders modeled appropriate behavior in the following non-judgmental and caring ways (Treat and Bormaster, 1975: 9):

1) Talking in terms of feelings,
2) Making "I" statements, speaking for selves and allowing others to do so,
3) Speaking directly *to* others instead of *about* others, and
4) Reminding the group members that everyone has the right to be silent.

Activities included choosing of groups, and other enabling experiences which fostered the establishment of group trust and a sense of groupness. Also listening, talking and non-verbal communication exercises were offered. The final activities concerned self—past, present, and future—and ended by focusing on personal strength.

Evaluation

Evaluation information was obtained from a rating scale which was divided into two sections, one for the general project and one for the human relations training.

Ratings of the general project including organization, facilities, and food were overwhelmingly above average or excellent. More importantly, 84% of the respondents declared the seminar as a whole as either helpful or extremely helpful with only 8% rating it of little value and 8% as not helpful.

Ratings of the human relations training revealed that 34% found the experience very helpful, 50% helpful, and 16% neither helpful nor harmful. None rated it as harmful or very harmful.

Of the three students who responded that the seminar had been "neither helpful nor harmful," only one stated that something other than human relations training would have been more valuable. The only other negative remarks were that "it was too long," "non-relevant," "many were things I had already done," and "did not like all the writing."

The twenty-one responses of those who as prospective teachers found the human relations training helpful or very helpful could be categorized into three basic groups: (1) understanding and accepting self, (2) understanding and accepting others, and (3) understanding group process as a technique. Indications of induced change related to personal growth in self-awareness and acceptance were apparent in three-fourths of the remarks. Often mentioned were statements such as "realizing how others see me," "increasing confidence," "enabling the expression of feelings," "solving specific problems," "coping with negative personality traits," and "identifying strengths and weaknesses." Many also mentioned increased awareness and skill in communicating, including giving and receiving feedback. The second largest category included remarks by fifty-seven percent indicating increased understanding and acceptance in relating to others, both professionals and students. Thirty-three percent of the responses indicated growth in an awareness of the underlying behavior dynamics of group process and its worth as a technique in the classroom. Specifically mentioned as valuable was the modeling by the facilitators in group activities. Suggestions for improving the project from the group who rated the training helpful included "more time to evaluate teaching" and "more teaching ideas and methods." Also, "more unstructured time" and "more clearly defined goals at the beginning" were suggested. One respondent felt that it would "be a good idea to do this earlier in our college education."

Epilogue

Efficacy of the 1976 seminar was studied through a 1979 follow-up evaluation form mailed to participants during their third year of professional experience. A fifty percent return, revealed that as professionals, thirty-eight percent found the Human Relations Training very helpful, fifty percent helpful and twelve percent indicated that it was neither helpful or harmful.

Comments indicated that sixty-three percent found the Human Relations Training specifically had been helpful in promoting the understanding of students and fifty percent found it had helped in promoting self-understanding.

Summary and Implications

The personal and professional growth seminar provided an opportunity for affective learning during a time of sharing professional concerns among teacher education candidates and university student teaching supervisory personnel. Indications are that the program of human relations training did initiate individual and professional growth. Also, the participants seemingly became more aware of the underlying dynamics of behavior and the worth of group process in facilitating learning. Opportunity was provided for observing and practicing communication skills which should enable the subjects to work more effectively with others as professional leaders. A follow-up evaluation validated the lasting efficacy of this project and the significance of this encounter, which, was indeed as defined by Burton (1969: 2) "a time of living more deeply and sharing the human condition with others."

If, as indicated in the literature and in this project, teacher effectiveness is correlated positively with competencies in human relations and these competencies can be acquired if appropriate experiences are provided, the implications are that this type of affective education should be an integral part of teacher education programs. However, any teacher educator who has wrestled with curriculum decisions is aware of the many areas of need vying for the time alloted to the professional programs. With rigid teacher certification standards, the inclusion of affective-related experiences is not a simple addition process. Instead, it calls for the reordering of priorities. One hopes that the basis for these curriculum decisions will not be strictly theoretical, but will be also practical and, as such, a reflection of the demonstrated needs of those in the field.

By responding to these needs the teacher preparation institutions may be making a small but significant step toward a needed theory of instruction as called for by researchers such as Bruner (1966) and Piaget (1970). Simply by combining that information which is already known in fields of communication with theories of development, learning, and behavior, educators may be closer to a definition of teacher competencies needed in today's classrooms.

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"A highly developed purpose and the will to live are among the prime raw materials of human existence."

Norman Cousins
Anatomy of an Illness

Announcement

The Advanced Study Center of the National Center for Research in Vocational Education at Ohio State University is seeking applicants for its 1981 National Fellowship Program.

The Fellowship is a nine to twelve-month in-residence appointment with a financial support policy based on the participant's salary of the previous year. The Advanced Study Center provides additional resources to support each participant's study.

Women and men who participate in this program conduct studies of their own design such as employment policy, labor economics, career development and women in the work force.

Fellowships are designed to promote the professional development of the participants and support their scholarly contributions to vocational education.

Applicants will be judged according to the following criteria:

- Focus of Interest
- Leadership
- Scholarship
- Academic Achievement
- Professional Growth

The application deadline for 1981 is November 1, 1980. Applications are also being accepted for 1982.

For further information contact: Coordinator of the Advanced Study Center, National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210. The following toll free number may be used: 1-800-848-4815.

Introducing . . .

A special feature by high school teachers*

Enrollments Are Up At Northside!

Fran Simmermaker
Home Economics teacher
Columbus, Indiana

Ten years ago there were 11 girls enrolled in freshman vocational home economics at Northside Junior High School in Columbus, Indiana. The course offering was the traditional cooking and sewing curriculum. The 1979/80 school year finds 90 boys and girls electing ninth grade consumer education and interpersonal relationship classes.

This dramatic increase in enrollment materialized despite a change-over seven years ago from the time-honored offering of cooking and sewing classes to the more sophisticated, supposedly less-appealing consumer education package.

Beginning in 1972, the Indiana State Vocational Curriculum required the ninth grade program to offer one semester of consumer education and one semester of interpersonal relationships. The rationale was that not everyone needs to develop cooking and sewing skills, but everyone is, and will always be a consumer and all need to learn to understand themselves and their relationships with others.

When the new federal and state guidelines reared their heads and mandated a complete metamorphosis in the field of home economics, many teaching veterans went immediately to the wailing wall. With junior high school curriculums brimming with attractive electives such as science, art and music, the consumer education edict seemed to be sounding the death knell for all that we home economics teachers hold near and dear.

About this time, the old competitive urge started to creep back into my system. I convinced myself that I could roll with the punches, so to speak. But I was certainly dismayed at the prospects, despite my veteran status, in quotes, and over ten years of classroom teaching. After all, the opportunity to cook and sew a little was about the only thing attracting students to home ec classes in 1972.

Even my principal had sincere doubts that the students would accept a change. He was concerned that a laboratory class—a hands-on experience for students—would be lost from the school course offerings. In his opinion, there were already enough "academic" classes for this extremely active age child.

One thing seemed sure—the law wasn't going to be changed again soon. So I decided to hitch up the old bloomers and give it the proverbial college try. I'd been out of college since 1957; perhaps it was time for a change.

Faced with the challenge of keeping alive a program that seemed to be virtually stripped of its attractiveness, I went to work. I had always been blessed with excellent rapport with students, and I decided to fight fire with fire. Fueled by summer curriculum workshops, home ec teachers in our system slowly began to hammer out a new teaching methodology: the introduction of more humor and decision-making units spiced with cartoons that helped students identify problems and set up possible solutions. It proved, indeed, to be a "fun" way to introduce concepts and promote learning.

I felt that I got a lot of mileage out of role-playing. Playing a role myself, right along with the students, I soon was able to coax even the stubborn, reticent types into some form of participation.

"What did you do in home economics class today?"

"Oh, we had fun! We're studying roles and our teacher came in dressed in a warm-up suit."

"Yeah, but did you hear about last week when she reversed the roles—she played like she was a student and we got a chance to be the teacher?"

*If we don't hear from you high school teachers, this page will have to be blank next time!

"Yep, she was really funny—she wrote notes and did the things we usually do in class—and when John was playing the teacher, he really got upset with her!"

"Tomorrow, we're going to have a role-playing session where we assume the identity of a person we'd like to be someday . . . and then we're going to interview each other."

"And don't forget we're going to have refreshments afterwards."

I realized that I had a good thing going with role-playing, but I soon became wary of overkill. I felt I needed a few more weapons in my teaching arsenal.

So . . . more workshops, more reading, more seminars, and slowly but surely the new curriculum began to evolve: a values section at which students are given a set amount of play money and they set priorities and bid on items; a field trip to the local grocery store for a first hand demonstration on how easy it is to part with that hard-earned cash.

With a radio announcer husband, I probably was a little more cognizant of the communications field than many of my peers, and I have leaned on the tape recorder heavily through the years. Films? Sure! And special guests—by the dozens. Stacking chairs between myself and my students, I demonstrated that there could be barriers to communicating. I had to smile as my students began to complain that they couldn't see around the chairs, and started "hollering" for me to take them down!

I had students identify resources by means of a simple food lab. The student with the longest list of resources was given a prize.

I divided the class into buyers and sellers to demonstrate the law of supply and demand and was amazed at the resources I could draw on for this effort.

With each passing year, I was able to add more. I found that the school system was starting to take notice, and suddenly the assistant principal was dropping in to listen as the treasurer of a local firm that employs about 10,000 people in our town was talking to the students about economics. A local doctor let his hair down and told students exactly how much money he made, as part of a unit on occupations.

I discovered quickly that younger teachers working on their masters degrees were more than willing to share ideas, and the new teachers' input seemed to add a new dimension to a program that was now running smoothly on all cylinders.

Yes, there were frustrations. It has to be tough teaching with such a wide range of ability present in just about every class. Some activities just plain flopped—a lot of them at first. And others had to be revamped. It was difficult to acquire people for panels and discussions. Counselors had to be briefed on the home ec program so they could sell it to the students.

It is helpful to ask students to evaluate classes at semester's end. You have to be a bit fearless, too! "What day this past semester did you enjoy class the most?" I ask.

Needless to say, some hard lessons are learned over the years. For one, it seems that the poorest teaching I do is when I talk for more than five minutes. Students are experts at tuning the teacher out, and they have not developed good listening skills. And I'm afraid that good listening skills are not always encouraged by the way we teach.

One thing I don't do is beat around the bush in my classes. I've found that the first seven words spoken in answering a question are the ones that have the most impact. So I try to answer questions as matter-of-fact-ly as possible. And I suppose the same thing holds true concerning an explanation. Now that puts a teacher under a little pressure, does it not? Try explaining how to thread a bobbin in seven words!

Teaching consumer education and interpersonal relationship classes requires a lot of teacher preparation. At the start, there were few textbooks available. Most of my teaching was—and is—centered (or at least reinforced) through activities. These activities require lots of time to plan and organize in order to be effective. The courses, themselves, are not easy to teach. Summer in-service programs can be a real lifesaver.

Examples of activities? How about an audio-tutorial lesson on labeling and label-reading, a problem-solving unit requiring a trip to the grocery store, a fashion show held every spring featuring students and items they produce in class.

Don't overlook the teachers in your own school system as potential interviewees. They'll tell you they're too busy, but they are really "hams" at heart. They just want to be coaxed a little.

What is the bottom line? Well, it seems to me that, these days, taking home ec at Northside Junior High School in Columbus, Indiana, is no longer akin to kissing your sister. Instead, word is spreading that home ec can (again) be fun, and is getting "funner." Look out science, yearbook, newspaper staff, band, chorus and art—the ol' home ec course ain't dead yet. Matter of fact, the corpse seems pretty lively these days.

A Personal Attack on Inflation

Hazel Taylor Spitze

Over and over nowadays when people are asked what they consider their most serious, most urgent, most pressing problem, they respond in capital letters: INFLATION!

I asked an economist recently what his advice would be to those trying to cope with inflation, and he said

(1) try to keep your income increasing at least as rapidly as the inflation rate,
(2) try to keep your investments growing at a rate at least equal to the inflation rate, and
(3) curb your expenditures.

What follows here will relate to number three, probably the easiest one on his list for an individual or a family to control. We'll think about it in a somewhat different way from the usual.

Most people could reduce their expenditures markedly without diminishing their quality of life. The "trick" or the secret is in attitude. We have to *want* to do so and to feel good about having done so.

Some years ago I conducted a little "experiment" on my family in order to find out what it feels like to feed a family on the "welfare allotment" for food. I didn't tell them what I was doing, but for a month I planned and served meals spending no more than that allotment. I found it an exciting challenge, and when I was able to serve nutritious, appetizing meals which my family did not recognize as an experiment, I felt successful.* If I had been *forced* to spend only that amount because I had no more income and no way to earn any, I might have had an entirely different attitude. Some people in those circumstances feel challenged, but many feel deprived. They feel sorry for themselves, give up.

The key is that the reduction in expenditures is *voluntary*. People who voluntarily simplify their lifestyle are likely to feel ennobled rather than disadvantaged. This term, *voluntary simplicity*, has been given to a movement with several million followers which was described in *The Futurist*, Aug. 1977,[1] and mentioned in an earlier *Illinois Teacher* (Jan./Feb. 1978). Quoting from the latter:

> What is voluntary simplicity? According to Elgin and Mitchell, it is outwardly simple and inwardly rich, a way of life embracing frugality of consumption, a strong sense of environmental urgency, a desire to return to living and working environments which are of a more human scale, and an intention to realize our higher human potential, both psychological and spiritual, in community with others. It stresses being and becoming rather than *having*. It does not mean living cheaply because the durable, aesthetic items required for this life style may be hand-crafted and expensive. . . . It means living *with* nature rather than at the expense of nature. It means living fully, not just existing. (p. 107)

These authors were not thinking about inflation per se, but when one begins to protect the environment, conserve energy and other resources, and simplify one's lifestyle, one is likely to be able to cope with inflation. And in doing so, one contributes to the solution of the problem for the whole society while balancing one's own budget.

Coping With Inflation by Simplifying One's Lifestyle

If a person or family members decide to take this route of coping with inflation by simplifying their lifestyle, how do they begin?

During World War II when everyone was being urged and most were trying to conserve gasoline, there were signs everywhere asking: Is this trip really necessary? Perhaps the question to ask now is: Is this *expenditure* really necessary? We can ask this question whether the expenditure is a cup of coffee, another dress, a new car, or a house.

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*I do not wish to suggest here that the average welfare recipient could do likewise for they usually do not have my equipment, my storage facilities, my transportation capabilities, my skills and my knowledge. I did conclude that education to increase their knowledge and skills ought to make them more likely to succeed.

[1] Duane S. Elgin and Arnold Mitchell, "Voluntary Simplicity: Life Style of the Future?" *The Futurist* (Aug. 1977), p. 200 ff.

What makes an expenditure necessary? Some reasons people spend are:

- habit
- add to beauty of surroundings
- keep up with the Joneses
- save time
- improve health
- gain status or prestige
- make work easier
- be pleasurable
- meet physical needs
- improve appearance
- show favor or kindness to others
- increase comfort
- reduce fears or increase safety
- add to knowledge or education
- follow a hobby
- meet professional or business obligations
- provide for our future
- etc.

There must also be reasons *not* to spend! Examples include to:

- cope with inflation
- save for our future
- save for some else's future
- protect the environment by reducing our consumption of its non-renewable resources
- stimulate creativity and imagination (e.g., in thinking of substitutes)
- de-emphasize materialism
- focus on human relations and psychosocial development
- focus attention on natural beauty
- etc.

According to Lewin's[2] theory of problem resolution, a problem may remain unresolved or at a state of equilibrium if some restraining forces are preventing it from being solved while other driving forces are keeping it from becoming more serious. With a force field technique, a problem solver lists the restraining forces and the driving forces and considers how one group can be strengthened and the other decreased in order to disrupt the equilibrium and get some action to solve the problem. In a similar way, the person wishing to make some change in personal spending could list the pro's and con's as above (adding one's own reasons to the lists), and analyze a given proposed expenditure. S/he might find an answer, *for her/him*, to the question: Is this expenditure necessary?

Lifestyle Changes to Consider

Can we trust our own decisions? Can we find ways to feel good about our decisions even if they run counter to the majority? Can we feel satisfaction in meeting a challenge successfully?

Can we find no-cost and low-cost ways to enhance our quality of life? One symposium[3] identified thirty factors important in the quality of life as follows:

In the economic environment
- (1) work satisfaction
- (2) income
- (3) income distribution
- (4) economic security

In the political environment
- (5) informed constituency
- (6) civil liberties
- (7) electoral participation
- (8) non-electoral participation
- (9) government responsiveness

In the physical environment
- (10) housing
- (11) transportation
- (12) material quality
- (13) public services
- (14) aesthetics

In the social environment
- (15) community
- (16) social stability
- (17) culture
- (18) physical security
- (19) family
- (20) socialization
- (21) recreation

In the health area
- (22) physical
- (23) mental
- (24) nourishment

In the natural environment
- (25) air quality
- (26) water quality
- (27) radiation
- (28) solid waste
- (29) toxicity
- (30) noise

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[2]Lewin, Kurt, Group Decision and Social Change, in *Readings in Social Psychology*, Theodore Newcomb, and Eugene Hartley, editors. New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1947.

[3]*The Quality of Life Concept: A Potential New Tool for Decision-Makers*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Research and Monitoring, Environmental Studies Division, 1972.

It might be an interesting challenge to study these factors, pick out a few that we have a particular interest in improving for ourselves, and then ask again the above question: Can we find no-cost or low-cost ways to enhance our quality of life?

For me, an important factor is no. 30, noise. I use my blender and garbage disposal very infrequently, and I never turn on the TV or radio unless I really want to hear a good program or the kind of music that improves my quality of life. When my husband or a neighbor starts the power mower, I quickly plan a shopping trip, preferably on my bicycle, and come home with a supply of groceries after the lawn is mowed. Though I live on a busy street, our backyard is quiet because of all the trees, shrubs, and hedge that we and our neighbors have planted over the years. Because of my son's hobby of growing trees from seeds he collected, none of the above cost anything.

Another factor of importance to me is air quality, indoors and out. I have more control indoors, of course, and in the winter I increase my quality of life by turning down the thermostat and growing lots of plants which "oxygenate" and humidify the air I breathe. Again, no expense, because I started all the plants from "slips", canes, seeds, and branches my friends and relatives provided.

A third factor high on my list is the avoidance of waste. I take pleasure in never wasting a morsel of food, I try to take such care of my equipment that it lasts "forever" (My refrigerator was purchased in

Teachers!

If you do not have already the gold mine of information in the 16 page

CONSUMER INFORMATION CATALOG
Spring 1980

you may order it free from

Consumer Information Center
Pueblo, Colorado 81009

It lists "booklets from almost 30 agencies of the Federal Government and more than half of them are free. You will find booklets on how to fix your car; how to save money on food, health care, energy, and other household expenses; how to slim down and trim up; and many other interesting topics."

Examples of the free booklets are: Many are inflation fighters! (You may order up to 20 titles.)

Common Sense in Buying a Used Car
Consumer Problems with Auto Repair
How to Save Gasoline and Money
Social Security Information for Young Families
A Woman's Guide to Social Security
Safe Brown Bag Lunches
Home Food Preservation
Consumers' Guide to Food Labels
Growing Your Own Vegetables
A Brief Explanation of Medicare
Clearing the Air: A Guide to Quitting Smoking
Plain Talk about Stress
Insomnia (and sleeping pills)
Move in . . . with a Graduated Payment Mortgage
Wise Home Buying
Low-Cost, No-Cost Energy Savers
Consumer Credit Handbook
Dried Flower Arrangements
Consumer's Resource Handbook
You Could Stop a Crime

1951!), and I give a lot of attention to conserving energy. I recycle everything possible in all kinds of ways (e.g., an empty wine bottle with lilacs from my yard becomes a gift, and old nylons stuff a pillow), and I buy as little packaging as possible along with the food I purchase at the supermarket.

These behaviors of mine are illustrative of ways to cut costs and cope with inflation while enhancing our own quality of life. While our minds and our time are occupied with such things as these, we are not contemplating purchases that might let inflation get the best of us.

Other possible changes to consider are:

(1) Using less credit (Wait a little longer and save a little more!)
(2) Choosing less expensive hobbies (Contrast vegetable gardening with photography, or hiking with golf).
(3) Mending (household textiles, clothes, toys, books . . .)
(4) Repairing (furniture, equipment, lamps, screens . . .)
(5) Choosing clothing that requires no dry cleaning
(6) Choosing a hairstyle that requires no weekly trips to the hairdresser
(7) Walking or bicycling more, and driving less
(8) Making new clothes from old
(9) Shopping at garage sales
(10) Making gifts (growing plants, foods, arts and crafts, accessories . . .)
(11) Planning creative and "re-creative" vacations at or near home
(12) Planning less expensive but charming ways to entertain friends
(13) Stop smoking!
(14) Exchanging or sharing with friends (magazines, services, tools, rides, baby-sitting . . .)

One step at a time! We can't act on all of our ideas at once. We need to try one at a time and give it a chance to work, then bask in our success in winning the fight against inflation, before moving on to the next. The greatest feeling of all is coming up with an idea no one else has had, finding it successful, and then sharing it with others.

Some Teaching Techniques

(for Family Living, Consumer Education, or other appropriate classes)

If we can help our students learn to make reasoned decisions based on their own well-thought-through values and let them see how these decisions affect a family's ability to cope with inflation, they will benefit throughout their lives. Would such ideas as the following work in your classes?

(1) Tell the students that a symposium of "experts" has identified a list of 30 general factors important in the quality of life (see page 20) and you wonder how their own list would compare with the experts and with each other. Give them a chance to ask questions in order to clarify what is called for and then a few minutes to make their own list of 30 factors, individually without discussion. Share via chalkboard and note whether there are any that everyone listed, which ones many students listed, which ones only one or a few listed. Without allowing any criticism of anyone's list, let students tell why they chose one or a few on their list. Allow questions and discussion, stipulating that no one's choices may be criticized.

During the latter part of the period, or as an assignment for the next day, ask students to re-think their list, make a new list (turn in both lists) if they have changed their minds, and to write a few paragraphs telling why they feel satisfied with their list. A possible addition could be a paragraph on whether they think there would be any problems for society if everyone had the same list or whether, instead, society would be better for all. (Grading for such an assignment would surely be pass-fail, with a pass for all who turned in a paper. Returning the papers with marginal comments by the teacher could stimulate further thinking and assure the student that it was read and that s/he was an important person.)

At some point, preferably when the students asked for it and after they had done their own thinking and sharing, the teacher could show the list of the symposium's 30 factors, perhaps in simplified language. And if the students asked for the teacher's own list, s/he would probably be wise to have one to share.

(2) The above would be preparatory for another lesson in which students could be confronted with the question: How could you enhance the quality of your life without spending any money? Using the brainstorm technique they could suggest actions, behavior changes, and ideas for themselves and each other, again with no criticism. If rapport and space allowed, students might be given a few

minutes in groups of three or four to discuss any ideas they had heard which might be feasible for them. In the final 10-15 minutes of the period each student, working individually, could write a few paragraphs on "Some changes I think I'll try for improving my quality of life without spending any money".

(3) A third lesson could begin with the question: Why do people spend money? Instructions could be that students would raise their hands when they had at least five reasons written down. Then sharing could begin via chalkboard or overhead projector and the teacher could add where necessary to compile a somewhat exhaustive list. (See page 20)

The question, "Why do people sometimes decide *not* to spend money", could be treated the same way and both lists could later be duplicated for all. (See chart on page 20).

This could be followed by the question, What is inflation?, and a discussion of the problems families face because of inflation, what the rates mean, etc. The students could be asked to read the simply written booklet described below and hopefully begin to "put it all together."

(4) After the students have had the experiences of the above three lessons and read the booklet, they may be ready for further questions and discussion of the problem of inflation and how their spending decisions affect their own ability to cope with it and how all consumers' decisions affect the problem for the whole economy.

A possible follow-up exercise could be using the chart that appears on the following page to evaluate some of their own spending decisions.

"DOLLAR$ AND SEN$E"

is an attractive 4x9-inch, 12-page, booklet subtitled "Inflation: what it is and what you can do to help fight it". Simply written in large print, with colorful illustrations, it is available free (*one* copy) from the government source

Dollars and Sense
Pueblo, Colorado 81009

For information on bulk quantities of this booklet, contact

Dollars and Sense
The Advertising Council, Inc.
825 Third Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10022

It was prepared as a voluntary service by Compton Advertising, Inc. for the Advertising Council, written in cooperation with the U.S. Depts. of Agriculture, Commerce, Labor and Treasury.

Spending Decisions

Name ______________________

Proposed expenditure no. 1 $ ________ for ______________
Proposed expenditure no. 2 $ ________ for ______________
Proposed expenditure no. 3 $ ________ for ______________

Exp. no. 1	Exp. no. 2	Exp. no. 3	*Reasons* for this expenditure (check all those appropriate)
______	______	______	1.
______	______	______	2.
______	______	______	3. Use the list compiled earlier in class
______	______	______	4.
______	______	______	5.
			etc.

Reasons for *not* making this expenditure
(check all those appropriate)
1.
2.
3. Use the list compiled earlier in class
4.
5.
etc.

Exp. no. 1	Exp. no. 2	Exp. no. 3	**Decision:** (check appropriate decision for each expenditure)
______	______	______	I will make this expenditure.
______	______	______	I won't make this expenditure.
______	______	______	I'll wait awhile and think about it some more.

Reasons for Decision on Expenditure no. 1: ______________

Reasons for Decision on Expenditure no. 2: ______________

Reasons for Decision on Expenditure no. 3: ______________

Teaching Strategies for Helping Adolescents Make Decisions Related to Achieving Goals

Valerie Chamberlin, Joan Kelly, Merrilyn Cummings
Department of Home Economics Education, Texas Tech University

How can adolescents identify their life-time goals, analyze how people show commitment to goals, and determine their personal commitment to their own long-term goals?

We duplicated the lesson plans and written materials needed for each day of a 3-day unit to help with these questions on a different color paper to help teachers follow the overall plan and to get organized for class. The Goal Q-Sort instrument described on pages 46-49 of the September/October 1979 issue of *Illinois Teacher* was used the second day of the unit to help adolescents prioritize their goals in interpersonal, intrapersonal, and material categories. An optional activity that might be used at the end of the unit includes having students complete a Goal Commitment Questionnaire that helps them analyze their commitment to the goals they have selected.

The original unit was evaluated by six secondary home economics teachers who have junior and senior high school students in their classes and teach courses such as Home and Family Living, Management, and Consumer Education in which the strategies might be utilized. These teachers critiqued the unit in terms of clarity of directions, appropriateness of learning experiences, and appeal to adolescents. Changes were made to incorporate the suggestions of these experienced teachers, and then the unit was additionally pilot tested by 10 home economics student teachers from Texas Tech University who utilized the suggested teaching strategies with 224 junior and senior male and female students in their classes.

Suggestions for expanding the unit included some of the following:

- Discuss why peoples' goals differ, even people in the same family.
- Brainstorm to identify factors such as age, sex, and educational level that might affect how a person ranked items on the Goal Q-Sort instrument.
- Discuss why some people are willing to share their goals with the group while other people prefer not to reveal their goals. Discuss factors such as the time in the school year, one's self-concept, and the size of the class, that might influence one's attitude toward revealing personal goals to others.
- Suggest other goals that might be included in the Goal Q-Sort instrument. Classify each of these additional goals into one of these categories: interpersonal (relationships with others), intrapersonal (personal concerns), and material (concrete possessions).
- Compare own personal goals with those of 152 other adolescents whose responses were used to check the reliability of the instrument and whose goals were found to be:

Ten most important goals	*Ten least important goals*
1. Go to heaven	1. Remain single
2. Be close to God	2. Promote sports
3. Marry someone I love	3. Live with someone
4. Be happily married for a long time	4. Be free without ties to anyone
5. Be close to my family	5. Have more than one vehicle
6. Respect myself	6. Have many possessions (things)
7. Have a job I enjoy	7. Understand sports
8. Help people learn about Jesus	8. Have good equipment on my vehicle
9. Be healthy all my life	9. Be active in sports
10. Help my family	10. Collect possessions (things) of interest

Three-Day Unit on Goal Setting and Goal Achievement

First Day

Objective #1: Define "goal."

Learning Experience:

Write these words on the board in this order scrambling the individual letters.
GUIDANCE
OPPORTUNITIES
ATTITUDES
LIFE STYLE

Have the students unscramble the words. Then ask them what word is formed by using the first letter of each of the unscrambled words. Discuss how each of the unscrambled words might affect a person's goals. Arrive at a consensus definition of the word *goal* such as "objective toward which a person is working" or "something one wants to achieve." Write the consensus definition on the board.

Objective #2: Identify possible life-time goals.

Learning Experiences:

Guide the students in listing life-time goals of some of the TV characters in shows such as these or others:

The mother in *The Waltons*—Happiness and family welfare; nurturing children.

The father in *Little House on the Prairie*—Providing for his family; positive interpersonal relationships.

The coach in *The White Shadow*—Helping youth mature successfully.

The father in *Different Strokes*—Rearing children in a healthy and happy environment with opportunities for growth.

The mother, Florida, in *Good Times*—Rearing children to be happy and successful.

Mr. Kotter in *Welcome Back, Kotter*—Assisting the disadvantaged to achieve; having a happy marriage.

Edith in *All in the Family*—Being a good wife, mother, homemaker; helping others; peace and quiet.

George in *The Jeffersons*—Having material possessions; being accepted by others; "keeping up with the Joneses."

J. R. in *Dallas*—Having power, money and material goods.

— — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

Help students to identify life-time goals of characters in literary works being studied at the present time in English classes. These characters may be in a Shakespearean or historical drama, an autobiography or biography, or a novel. Check with students or English teachers to determine literature that is included in English courses.

— — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

Guide students in identifying life-time goals suggested in songs. Some of these may be used:

"Ready to Take a Chance Again"—Satisfying relationship with a woman

"My Way"—Independence, non-conformity

"I Want to Live"—Full, abundant life

"Thank God I'm a Country Boy"—Wholesome environment

"Grandma's Feather Bed"—Family traditions

"Homeward Bound"—Stability in life

"Bridge Over Troubled Waters"—Helpful benefit of wise counseling, people seeking counseling when it is needed.

"Rhinestone Cowboy"—Making a name for yourself, sticking to plans

"Try a Little Kindness"—Positive interpersonal relationships

"Luckenback, Texas"—Quiet and peaceful life, doing things for yourself and on your own, wholesome environment

"The Morning After"—Hope, not giving up, stick-to-it-iveness

"I Won't Last a Day Without You"—Security

"Snowbird"—Clear path to the future

"You Needed Me"—Helping others to get back on their feet and to have good self-concepts

"What the World Needs Now"—Love, concern for others

"Why Me?"—Forgiveness

"Leave Them a Flower"—Natural environment

"You've Come a Long Way, Baby"—Equality for women

"Living the Sweet Life"—Seeing the children grow happily, satisfying life

Objective #3: Explain how experiences may change life-time goals.

Learning Experience:

Ask students to give examples of people in real life, in your community, in literature, and in movies whose experiences in life caused them to change their lifetime goals. The examples involve physical, psychological, or financial changes. Here are a few examples to get you started:

> Alex Haley, author of *Roots*, wrote letters for Navy personnel aboard ship during World War II. Because he was so successful in this experience, he found that he had an aptitude for writing. As a result, he decided he wanted to be a writer and devoted his life to this career.
>
> — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —
>
> Jill Kilmont was trying out for a place on the U.S. Olympic Ski Team when she had a very serious accident on the slopes and as a result was paralyzed from the neck down. Very gradually she regained some use of her hands and arms and now uses a motorized wheelchair. Jill's fiance at the time of her accident could not adjust to her disability. She later married another person and is now a very successful teacher in California.
>
> — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —
>
> Charles Colson was a White House adviser who was convicted for his part in the Watergate cover-up. While in prison he became a "born-again Christian." He has written a book about his religious experiences, and a movie has been made based on the book. Colson has decided to give all the money he makes from the movie to a nationwide ministry for convicts. The "Prison Fellowship" which Colson began now has a staff of 40, including ex-convicts and clergy. Colson says it is a "Christian duty" to help those in trouble such as prisoners.

Second Day

Objective #4: Identify one's own life-time goals.

Learning Experience:

Ask students to complete the Goal Q-Sort instrument by following the instructions (see *Illinois Teacher* September/October, 1979, p. 46-49). Be sure all students have *Goal Q-Sort Reporting Forms* in their folders. (Most students take 30 to 40 minutes to complete this activity.) Ask students to write their top three goals on a separate sheet of paper for use the third day.

Third Day

Objective #5: Explain what goals mean to one personally.

Learning Experience:

Write the following sentence stems on the board. Then ask students to complete the sentences.

The one goal in life that is most important to me is . . .

It is important to me to reach my goals because I . . .

The greatest influence on the goals I have set for myself has been . . .

To reach my most important goals, I will have to . . .

After I have reached my important goals, I will . . .

After completing this activity, ask students to write one more sentence that summarizes and includes the main ideas expressed in all five of the completed sentences taken as a whole. In class, discuss these questions:

1. Why were the sentences completed differently by each person?
2. Why are one's goals very personal?
3. Why are identified goals more important to some people than to other people?

Objective #6: Define "commitment."

Learning Experience:

Write the word COMMITMENT on the board *vertically*. Ask the students to use the letters to fill in words *horizontally* that are related to *commitment*. The horizontal words may begin with a letter in the word *commitment*, end with one of the letters, or have a letter in common somewhere in-between. A few words have been suggested to help you get the students started:

```
  aCtion
   O
   M
   M
   Interest
efforT
   M
   E
   N
   T
```

(Some other words students might suggest are: ti*M*e, *I*nterest, pl*E*dge, fu*T*ure.) Help students arrive at a consensus definition of the word *commitment* such as "an agreement, pledge, obligation, or planned course of action to do something in the future."

Objective #7: Give examples of ways people show commitment to life-time goals.

Learning Experience:

Divide students into small groups and have them list ways the individual(s) in the case study assigned to each group showed commitment to life-time goals. Have students suggest other ways people show commitment to long-term goals and report findings to class. (A case study for each group is enclosed.)

Some suggested examples of commitment illustrated in each of the case studies follow:

Sandy's Turnabout

1. Spent extra time on projects related to goal.
2. Planned the small steps needed to reach larger goal.
3. Kept a written record (diary) of progress toward goal.
4. Discussed goal with others.

Jeff and Vet School

1. Postponed immediate pleasure activity (dating) to do something related to goal (job to earn money for college).
2. Saved money to achieve goal.
3. Spent extra time on projects related to goals.
4. Chose goal freely from among other possible goals.

Jill's Photography

1. Discussed her goal with others.
2. Identified resources helpful in reaching goal.
3. Planned the small steps needed to reach larger goal.
4. Developed some of the skills needed to reach goal (taking pictures).

Mary Ann and the World Games

1. Discussed goal with others.

2. Kept a written record of progress toward goal.
3. Spent extra time on projects related to goal (techniques and conditioning).

Sue, Billy, and Marriage

1. Discussed goal with others.
2. Made a personal pledge to themselves to reach goal.
3. Identified resources helpful in reaching goal.
4. Developed resources helpful in reaching goal.
5. Saved money to achieve goal.

Objective #8: Analyze one's present commitment to personal life-time goals.

Learning Experience:

Ask students to select one of the top three goals identified by using the Goal Q-Sort. Have students fill in the *Commitment Plan Chart* by giving examples to illustrate how they have shown and plan to show commitment to this goal.

Sandy's Turnabout

Sandy had always been in trouble at home, in school, and in general wherever he went. It seemed as if he was always being given one last chance to straighten up before he got in really serious trouble. At least, this is what his parents and the vice principal at school kept telling him. According to them, their suggestions never seemed to make an impression on Sandy.

One day Sandy was caught by the police stealing the tires from Mr. Smith's car. The youth director of the Trinity Church, Tom Dyer, was at the police station when Sandy was brought in. He recognized Sandy and talked to him. The longer he talked to Sandy the more convinced he became that Sandy was not really all that bad. Tom got Mr. Smith's agreement not to press charges. He also convinced the police to let Sandy go as long as he promised to continue to talk with Tom every week. Sandy was scared and quickly agreed to these terms.

As the weeks went along, Sandy began to look forward to his meetings with Tom. Tom seemed to be a regular person and not one of those "holier than thou" people Sandy associated with religion. During the meetings, Tom helped Sandy to see that being a Christian and commiting one's life to Christ was not all that "square." It made sense. During their talks, Sandy discussed with the minister the things he could do to serve God better.

Since Sandy had many leadership qualities and was an effective person when speaking to groups, he spent a good deal of his time talking to groups about how he made a commitment to Christ. He was often effective in getting people to think more about their relationship to God. Sandy also began keeping a diary concerning his experience and feelings about Christianity. Right now it helped him to think through his thoughts a little more clearly. Some day he might share part of the diary with others.

Jeff and Vet School

Jeff has for as long as he could remember wanted to be a veterinarian. Ever since he was a small boy he had every pet imaginable—cats, dogs, squirrels, guinea pigs, gerbils, skunks, and snakes. They were as much a part of his family as his mother and father and sisters and brothers.

Jeff's parents could not afford to send him to vet school. He thought about and looked into other professions which would not require as much education and training, but he always came back to being a vet. As it was, his parents had a hard time paying half of his tuition in college. Jeff knew how hard it was for them to support the family and to help with the tuition for Jeff, his older brother, and one of his sisters.

Jeff was popular with his classmates. Girls never seemed to tire of trying to get his attention and never could seem to understand why he did not date. He certainly was good looking, had a nice personality, and was smart.

Jeff felt he did not have time to date as much as he might like. Once in awhile he went out, but for the most part he had to spend his time working. He had to pay half of his college tuition and study to keep a high grade point average in order to get into vet school and try to get a scholarship. He even found that he could save some money for vet school.

When special projects were assigned in some of his classes, he tried to pick a topic related to his interest in veterinary science. Whenever he managed to do this, he thoroughly enjoyed every minute he spent on the project.

Jill's Photography

Jill had a hard time finding places to store all of her photographs. In fact, she had a hard time coming up with the money to support her expensive hobby. She hoped that some day photography would become her career. As a little girl, Jill would spend hours looking at magazine pictures and asking questions about how the pictures were taken.

One of her teachers at school encouraged Jill to talk to some of the photographers in town in order to find out more about becoming a professional photographer. In talking to each of these people, Jill learned something new about what it takes to be a photographer and what experiences she needed. In fact, Liz Smith helped her to develop a list of experiences which would be helpful to her if photography was to be her career. For example, she suggested doing additional work with different types of film, using different filters, and photographing under different lighting conditions.

Jill had read every book in the library about photography. Between the information she got from the books and the tips she learned from her photographer friends, she was able to improve her skills and come up with some outstanding photographs.

Mary Ann and the World Games

Mary Ann's name always seemed to be in the sports section of the local newspaper. There was no doubt about it. She was the most outstanding athlete to ever attend the local high school. Athletics seemed to come naturally to her, and she got a lot of encouragement from her family, her friends, and the coach at school. She had entered and won the sprints and the broad jump at the district and state meets. The regional AAU meet was next, and if she could win that she would be part of the way along the road to qualifying for the World Games.

Because Mary Ann was such a natural athlete, she had a lot to talk to Coach Jones about. They spent a great deal of time talking about Mary Ann's chances of qualifying for the World Games. Both were convinced she could make it. Coach Jones had helped her to see that developing her techniques and keeping in condition were the keys to being a champion. So Mary Ann spent the major part of her spare time developing her techniques in doing her conditioning exercises. She also kept a chart to record her progress, not only in her conditioning program but in her running time for the sprints and her distance in the broad jump.

Sue, Bill, and Marriage

Sue and Billy have been friends since elementary school. They began dating each other when they started high school. As they got to know each other better, they were less interested in dating other people. Their parents wanted them to date others, but Sue and Billy always said they had lots of chances to get to know other people when they were out with their friends.

Finally in their senior year of high school, Sue and Billy began talking seriously about getting married. Sue suggested they enroll in Mrs. Williams' Home and Family Life class. She knew that dating, engagement, and marriage were discussed in class, and Sue thought this would be a good chance for them to think even more seriously about being married. She was aware that there were plenty of problems in any marriage. Even her own parents' marriage, good as it was, had many rough spots. Sue and Billy had talked a lot concerning what they had learned from their families about peoples' commitments to each other in a marriage relationship. They also talked to the minister of their church about the responsibilities of being married. He suggested several books they could read. Although reading was never a favorite pastime of either Sue or Billy, they did find the books interesting and helpful.

They also made a pledge to each other to have a successful marriage. They wanted more than anything in the world to prove to their parents they were mature and ready for marriage. Therefore, they both took part-time jobs and began to save their money in order that it would be financially possible for them to get married.

Write your goal here ______________________________

Commitment Plan Chart

Give some examples to illustrate how you have shown and plan to show commitment to the goal written above.

Ways to show commitment to life-time goals	Past commitment	Future commitment
Example *Goal:* Have a job I enjoy. *Ways to show commitment:* Discuss goal with others	Talked to homeroom teacher and school counselor	Interview people in several careers
1. Spend time on projects related to goal		
2. Plan small steps leading to goal		
3. Keep a written record of progress toward goal		
4. Discuss goal with others		*(chart continued on next page)*

Commitment Plan Chart (continued)

5. Postpone pleasure activity to do something related to goal		
6. Develop skills needed to reach goal		
7. Make a personal pledge to reach goal		
8. Identify resources helpful in reaching goal		
9. Save money to achieve goal		

Goal Commitment Questionnaire

Please answer each item below by placing a check in the column that *best* indicates how you feel about your goals. There are NO right or wrong answers.

	Totally Agree	*Agree Very Much*	*Tend to Agree*	*Tend to Disagree*	*Disagree Very Much*	*Totally Disagree*
1. I know exactly what I want to do with my life during the next few months.						
2. I often think about the goals I have set for myself.						
3. In order to reach my goals, I give up many activities that I enjoy.						
4. I know exactly what I want to be doing five years from now.						
5. I set goals after exploring how they could change my life.						
6. Some of my goals are much more important to me than other goals.						
7. I am working very hard toward my life-time goals.						
8. When I set goals, I make serious promises to myself to reach my goals.						
9. I often think about different ways of reaching my goals.						
10. Every day I carefully check to see how well I am reaching my goals.						
11. As I set new goals, I give much thought to how they fit in with my other goals.						
12. I am willing to save money to reach my goals.						
13. When I set goals, I work very hard to improve myself to reach my goals.						
14. I am often willing to give up activities to reach my goals.						
15. I am often willing to spend time working to reach my goals.						
16. When I set goals, I make a complete search for for things to help me reach my goals.						
17. I often save money to reach my goals.						
18. I choose my goals very carefully after considering many other possible goals.						
19. I spend a great deal of time working to reach my goals.						

Perspectives on Teaching Housing

Laurie Hittman
Northwest Wisconsin
Home Economics Coordinator

Why is home economics concerned with teaching about housing? What is the overall aim in teaching housing? Is the overall aim consistent with the mission of home economics? What should be taught to secondary students regarding housing? How can it be taught?

What Is Currently Being Taught In Housing?

Murray[1] reports that home economics teachers view the area of housing with much lower interest than clothing, foods, or family relations. Frequently, teacher background in the area is weak. There may be little undergraduate preparation in housing. Few textbooks, curriculum guides, and other references are available. Those that are available tend to be interior design-oriented, and directed predominantly to a female audience.

Phihal and Brown[2] identified three emphases that are common in teaching housing (1) absolute rules, (2) description, (3) truisms and vague generalities.

An absolute rule is a principle or regulation to be followed regarding procedures, practices, or decision making. A rule may be a decree of an authority. A common practice may also become a rule. Frequently a rule is taught to be an absolute without it being considered relative under certain conditions. Examples of absolute rules include:

Traffic patterns should be 40 inches wide.

A foundation wall for a house may be poured concrete about 10 to 12 inches thick.

Exterior doors on a house should be 36 inches wide.

By teaching rules, students become concerned with status and authority figures; human consequences are ignored; rational thinking is not encouraged. As a result, concepts become very rigid and fixed. Rules should be taught relative to the context or meaning of the situation so that students are encouraged to use reason in making decisions.

Description is telling what something is and what its characteristics are. Having students memorize the names and styles of furniture, types of rugs and carpeting, and various types of furnishings would exemplify this emphasis. Specific examples include:

Contemporary furniture has simple forms and lines.

Geometric shapes such as circles, triangles, cylinders, and cubes are often used.

Continuous cleaning ovens have a special coating on the oven walls. They cost less than self-cleaning ovens.

Louis XV furniture features graceful, curved lines.

By teaching merely description, students are asked to accept givens and therefore frequently do not recognize contradictions. Description tends to foster simplicity of thinking. Rather, trends should be evaluated as well as the problems which influenced these trends.

A truism consists of teaching the very obvious. Examples of vague generalities are:

The availability of natural light varies in many ways.

There are advantages and disadvantages to buying a home.

Designing the interior of a home provides an opportunity for creativity.

With a truism and vague generality emphasis, concepts become undifferentiated and unclarified. Concepts may be taught in isolation with no regard for interrelating ideas, resulting in simplistic and inflexible thinking. Concepts need to be interrelated to encourage students to become more reasoned thinkers.

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[1]Eloise Murray, "What is the Role of Home Economics in Teaching Family Housing?" *Illinois Teacher*, January/February 1979, p. 148-151.

[2]Jane Phihal and Marjorie Brown, *Evaluation Materials: Physical Home Environment and Psychological and Social Factors*, (Burgess Publishing Co.: Minneapolis, 1969).

How Do We Decide What To Teach?

As home economists we have agreed that home economics is concerned with family and the quality of life, as well as the development of individuals. Of course, the environment of the home is significant for the well being of families and individuals. Certainly then, the overall aim in teaching housing should be consistent with that of home economics. If this is so, then what implications does this have for what is taught in the area of housing?

Phihal and Brown point out that home economics is more than teaching common knowledge. This means that teaching of isolated rules, descriptions, truisms, and vague generalities are inadequate. Does teaching about the width of traffic patterns or continuous cleaning ovens promote quality of life and the development of people?

A need exists to reorient what is taught in housing by placing emphasis on the significant complex issues families face as opposed to superficial knowledge and immediate concerns. Additionally, the overall aim of teaching housing should be consistent with that of home economics. Sometimes one becomes so involved in the means that the end is forgotten.

Significant complex issues families face regarding housing might include:

What does housing mean to the family?

How has housing changed over time? Why has it changed? What does this mean for families?

How does the living environment affect families?

How do families affect the living environment?

What impact does society have on housing and families?

What is the family going to do about housing?

How Could Housing Be Taught?

In order to examine the above identified complex issues facing families, students need to be exposed to a variety of ideas as well as learning experiences in order to promote rational judgments. Following are some means to help students explore these significant issues.

Students could, in exploring the question, What does housing mean to the family?,

- Draw their concept of home. Compare drawings with fellow classmates. Explore how they have come to have the concept of home they do. How does the concept of home influence the meaning attached to home?
- Construct a collage to illustrate what home means to them and their family. What hidden meanings are attached to home?
- Interview children, teenagers, parents, middle aged and elderly adults using the following questions: What does home mean to you? How have your ideas of housing changed? What types of housing have you lived in? How has work influenced the types of housing you have lived in? What influence has society had on your choice of housing?
- Compile the results of the survey by discussing these questions: How does age influence the concept of home? Does sex influence how one feels about home? What values are associated with home for children, teenagers, adults, and elderly? How has work influenced the type of housing one has lived in? What impact has society had on housing choices?

Students could, in examining the questions: How has housing changed over time? Why has it changed? What does this mean for families?,

- Depict through photographs the changing space needs of the family throughout the life cycle. Why do needs change? How do changing needs affect family members? Identify obvious and hidden effects on family members.
- Divide into groups and make up skits to illustrate how housing has changed from the time of pits, caves, and tents. Speculate what family life might have been like then. Consider how resources available affect family life and housing.
- Bring pictures of family dwellings of the past or find pictures in books, encyclopedias, and magazines. Discuss how housing has changed and explore how families have changed. What is the relationship between changing housing and changing families?
- Investigate housing in other countries, i.e. Africa, Russia, Spain, Alaska, etc. Explore how homes are different from our past and present housing.
- Invite a guest speaker who has traveled in other countries to discuss cultural aspects of housing.

Students might in addressing the problem of How does the living environment affect families? and

How do families affect the living environment?,

- Record sights, sounds, and smells of various environments. Determine what impact these variables have on individuals within the family.
- Bring examples of how man has attempted to control his living environment. Explore the meaning of control. Why does man control his environment? What factors within the environment cannot be controlled? How do these factors affect housing and families?

Learning experiences that could help students explore What impact does society have on housing and families? and What is the family going to do about housing? are:

- Find newspaper or magazine articles regarding future housing issues, e.g., solar energy, underground housing, inflation, etc. Determine ways societal conditions influence housing and families. Consider ways families could react to these conditions.
- Invite a city planner or zoning official to discuss governmental regulations regarding housing. Why do we have zoning? How did it originate? What effect have government regulations had on families? How have families affected government control?
- Choose a case study of a family. Identify family housing values, stage of the life cycle, how life style affects housing, and options for housing for the family. Discuss how values are manifested in housing. Are the values exhibited suitable? Where did the ideas originate? What conditions within society might influence the family's choice of housing? What action should the family and all families take regarding these conditions?

In conclusion, it seems that much of what is being taught in housing originates in custom, upper middle class standards, and traditional aesthetics. Again consider, what is the overall aim in teaching housing? Is it the memorization of isolated facts, absolute rules, descriptors, and vague generalities? Or is it, to improve the quality of life by helping students make increasingly rational judgments as they face the significant complex issues relating to families.

Cake Making Research Project for Gifted and Talented

Margaret Malsam
Dist. 12 Public Relations Specialist
Denver Public Schools

Is a cake made from "scratch" really superior in taste and quality to a cake made from a mix? Which type of cake costs the most per ounce? Two girls in the gifted and talented program at Meritt Hutton Junior High conducted an experiment making angel food cakes from scratch with room temperature eggs, cold eggs, a national brand cake mix and two house brand cake mixes. After making the cakes, the girls weighed the cakes, and also a bakery angel food cake, and then compared them by figuring their volume in cubic centimeters (or milliliters). Their math teacher helped with formulas for figuring the volume of a cylinder minus a hole in the center.

Under the direction of their home economics teacher, Ms. Mary Jean Earl, the girls wrote a list of objectives, predictions, materials and observations. They tabulated their results by comparing the six angel food cakes on a chart according to taste, cost, weight, volume and quality. The angel food cake made from scratch using room temperature eggs proved to be the least expensive per ounce and had top quality and taste. The runner-up was the angel food cake made with a national brand cake mix.

One of the objectives of the district's gifted and talented program is to involve students in thinking processes by which information is generalized and applied in a practical way. The emphasis is on teaching students how to think through real-life problems. This experiment met these objectives. The girls used analytical skills in the project, such as deciding whether using different sizes and types of equipment to mix the cakes would have any effect upon the finished product.

Krisi Belmain, left, and Julie Balistreri, eighth graders, compare weight of angel food cakes in a home economics class. This was an independent study project for their gifted/talented class.

Angel Food Cakes

By Krisi Belmain and Julie Balistreri
8th and 9th grade students, Meritt Hutton Junior High

The Problem:

How do "scratch" angel food cakes compare with box mixes and bakery cakes in taste, quality and cost.

Prediction:

We thought the "scratch" angel food cake would be fluffier, lighter and better tasting than all the mixes and the bakery. We predicted the prices would be as follows: "scratch" - (least expensive), then Food Club, Betty Crocker and finally Safeway Bakery.

Materials:

1) 3 boxes angel food cake mix
2) Necessary ingredients
3) Necessary kitchen utensils

Observations:

In the making, the Betty Crocker mix did not look like an angel food mix. It did not have high peaks and it had a very bitter taste. In the making, Food Club mix looked and tasted more like angel food, but when it was done, it fell out of the pan. The Betty Crocker mix did not. In the price of the cakes, the bakery was $1.59, Betty Crocker was $1.16, the Food Club was $.90 and the "scratch" was $.77. We also found a cake to make with the left-over egg yolks, so we wasted no money or materials.

In appearance, the Betty Crocker looked all right but did not have the same top. The Food Club looked just like scratch at first, but when it fell out of the pan it didn't! The scratch cake looked like we expected.

In taste, the store-bought was the least desirable in taste, the Food Club was next, then came Betty Crocker, Mrs. Wright's, and finally the two scratch cakes.

In volume, Mrs. Wright's had more mass, then the one made with room temperature eggs, Betty Crocker, Food Club, the one made with cold eggs, and last (or least) Safeway's Bakery.

Conclusion:

Our prediction was mostly right, the scratch cakes were lighter and fluffier but the preferred taste was Mrs. Wright's, and then the scratch. We thought it was because nobody ever has time to make a scratch cake, and we're so used to the boxes that that is what we generally look for.

Results

Cake	*Taste*	*Cost*	*Weight*	*Volume*	*Quality*
A (Betty Crocker)	good	$1.16	1 lb. 4 oz.	2579.51 ccm (or ml.)	good
B (room temperature eggs, scratch)	good	.77	1 lb. 11 oz.	3179.25 ccm	good
C (Cold eggs, scratch)	fair	.77	1 lb. 10 oz.	1714.4400 ccm.	fair
D (Food Club)	fair	.90	1 lb. 3 oz.	1760.3625 ccm	poor
E (Mrs. Wright's)	fair	.90	1 lb. 6 oz.	3179.25 ccm.	good
F (Safeway's Bakery)	poor	1.59	1 lb.	1695.60 ccm.	fair

Angel Food Cake (The recipe we used)

1 + 1/8 c. cake flour
1 + 2/3 c. egg whites
1/2 t. salt
3 T. water
1 + 1/2 t. cream of tartar
1 + 3/4 c. sugar
3/4 t. vanilla
1/4 t. almond extract

Place egg whites in mixing bowl; add salt, water, flavoring and cream of tartar. Whip until stiff (soft peaks, not dry form). By hand, fold in sugar slowly, and add flour to the mix. Place in angel food pan in 375-degree oven.

Where Does the Money Go?

A Teaching Technique Especially for the College Bound

Hazel Taylor Spitze

Several years ago I had the opportunity to teach a class of college bound seniors in a high school for the gifted, most of whom had had no previous home economics. I based the semester-long course in home management on a simulation which could be adapted to other groups and to a whole year course. We worked as follows:

"Project yourself a year hence," I said to them, "and picture yourself in college, sharing living arrangements with another student. Assume an income for the two of you of ________*, and make a budget of your living expenses."

We acknowledged that with their inexperience, there would have to be some guesswork as well as slightly-informed estimations, and we began by their listing the categories to be put into their plans and then comparing with each other. I did not require that all have the same categories but they had to justify their inclusions and exclusions. Some excluded savings! (See chart on next page.)

Next they put figures after each category and totaled for the month. No debt was allowed.

Then we asked the question for one category after another: Is this enough? E.g., will I be satisfied with the housing I can rent for this amount?

Each category question was followed by investigation. We had field trips to university apartments, new private apartment buildings, old houses that had been made into apartments, mobile homes. We studied newspaper ads, and we talked to realtors, tenants, landlords. In the next class discussion some said, "No, I could not be satisfied with that housing so I'll have to add to that category and take it from some others."

When the category being studied was food, we made menus, analyzed for nutritive values, had a field trip to the grocery store, appraised preparation skills, estimated time available for shopping and cooking, and finally accepted or revised the allotment for that category.

We considered transportation (and some decided they'd have to live close to campus and forget about a car!), insurance, utilities, recreation, educational expenses (including tuition and textbooks), clothing, laundry and dry cleaning, gifts, hobbies, etc. We made sufficient study of each one to enable students to feel satisfied with their estimates and to see what further knowledge would be needed as they moved into this next phase of their lives, what skills might need to be developed, and how their attitudes and values would influence their financial planning.

(If we had had more than a semester we could have extended the simulation to explore changes needed in the financial plan and other aspects of their lifestyle if they had decided to get married and an unexpected baby had arrived.)

The reaction of these very able students was positive. They felt that the study was realistic and all the parts fit into a meaningful whole.

The simulation is equally appropriate for boys, girls, or a mixed class. Adequate teaching resources in all areas are needed to achieve the depth of which these able students are capable. As they explore printed sources, interview human sources, and share with each other they not only gain knowledge of the content but they learn, and *practice*, how to ask good questions, where to go for dependable answers, how a decision in one area affects a decision in another, how values as well as facts influence decisions, etc. They can also learn how one resource can substitute for another (e.g., time or skill for money), how to use community resources to supplement individual ones, and how friends and relatives can share resources to enhance their quality of life.

It worked for us. Can it work for your students?

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*This figure was the average income of married students at the University of Illinois at that time. I told them how I arrived at the figure but made clear they didn't have to picture themselves married! A same sex friend would be quite satisfactory. We did not discuss the source of income.

A Plan for Spending

Name ______________________ 2 persons, $ ________ per year (or month)

Budget Category	*1st Estimate*	*Revised Estimate*
Totals		

Home Economics Education Pamphlets

from Vocational Agriculture Service
434 Mumford Hall, University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801

No.	*Title*	*Price*	*Amount*
HEE 1001	Energy Conservation in the Home—You Can Make the Difference, 16 p.	.45	
HEE 1002	Metric Units of Measure—Length, 12 p.	.35	
HEE 1003	Metric Units of Measure—Area and Volume, 12 p.	.35	
HEE 1004	Metric Units of Measure—Mass and Temperature, 8 p.	.25	
HEE 1005	Selecting Toys: The Choice Is Yours, 20 p.	.55	
HEE 1006	Save Clothing by Removing Stains, 8 p.	.25	
HEE 1007	Learning to Be a Satisfied Renter, 16 p.	.45	
HEE 1008	Quick Meals at Low Cost, 12 p.	.35	
HEE 1009	The Way We Act—Developing Self-Esteem and Assertive Behavior, 8 p.	.25	
HEE 1010	Ruin It or Renew It in the Laundry, 12 p.	.35	
HEE 1011	What's New in the Supermarket? 8 p.	.25	

*If payment is sent with this order, please add the following for postage and handling:

For orders under $.50 . . . . add $ .25
For orders from $.50 to $1.50 . . . . add $ .50
For orders from $1.50 to $5.00 . . . . add $ .75
For orders from $5.00 to $10.00 . . . . add $1.00
For orders from $10.00 to $15.00 . . . . . . add $1.25
For orders from $15.00 to $20.00 . . . . . . add $1.50
For orders over $20.00 . . . . add $1.75

Sub-Total ____________
Less 20% (Illinois residents only) ____________
Postage & Handling* ____________
Total Cost ____________

Ideas from Student Teachers* . . .

"Charge It":

A simulation of a consumer's use of a revolving charge card.

Patti Bergman
Student Teacher,
Spring 1980
University of Illinois

Objectives:

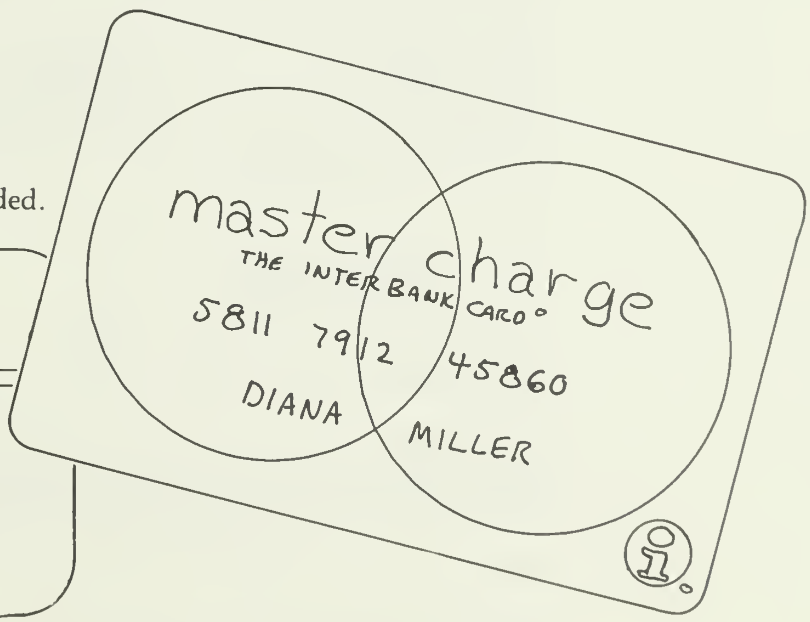
Students will be able to understand and complete charge card applications.
Students will be able to evaluate charge card agreements or contracts.
Students will be able to calculate the finance charge on the unpaid balance of the charge accounts.
Students will be able to explain the importance of notifying the charge card company when there is a problem with their account.
Students will be able to evaluate the use of the extended credit.

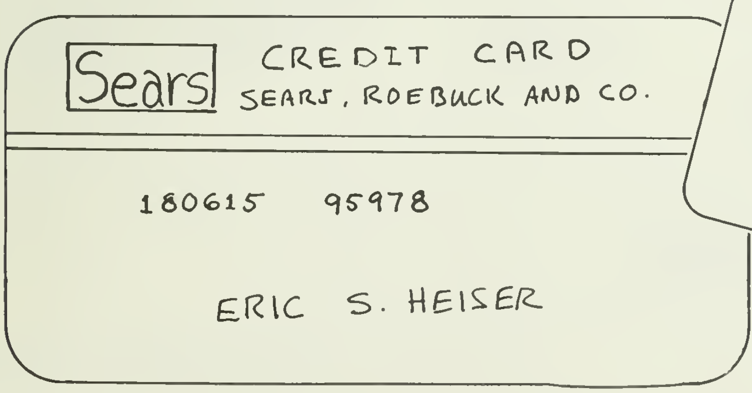
Principles: (Content)

1. To receive the privilege of credit, one must complete applications for charge accounts accurately.
2. The charge account agreement is evaluated for the consumer's responsibilities and rights.
3. Three bases for calculating the finance charge for revolving charge accounts are:
   Previous Balance
   Ending or Adjusted Balance
   Average Daily Balance.
4. A consumer is responsible for notifying the charge account company in case of discrepancies with the account. Failure to do so can affect his/her credit rating.
5. Extended credit or revolving charge accounts can extend a consumer's buying power temporarily.

Materials Needed for Each Student

Simulated credit cards
Ditto of credit card application form
Examples of real charge account agreements
Simulated bills from credit agencies
Handouts explaining calculation procedures, if needed.





*Editor's Note to Student Teachers and Teacher Educators: We want to hear from you! We'll be expecting a flood of teaching techniques to share on this page in each issue.

Teaching Techniques

Step 1:
Students "apply" for credit cards by completing the application form below.

Step 2:
Students receive their credit cards and agreements. Students evaluate the agreement.

Step 3:
Students receive a bill for their credit card purchases and calculate the finance charge using three bases. Teacher explains the bill format and procedure and answers questions. Also provides whatever help is needed with calculations.

Step 4:
Teacher collects credit cards for students who have brought them to class. These students then assume their credit cards to have been stolen.

Students who did not bring the card to class are assumed to have lost their credit cards.

Student will write a business letter to their company explaining the situation and asking the company to refuse any future charges.

Evaluation Procedures

Observe students as they work on the various steps. Examine completed applications, business letters, calculations. Use attitude instrument to see how students feel. Written test to check on understanding of processes.

Example of Credit Application

(Please Print) Last Name First Middle Initial	Age
Address City State Zip	How Long

☐ Own ☐ Board ☐ Rent	Monthly Mortgage or Rent	Social Security #	Phone Number	# of Dependents

Employer	Net Earnings	☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly

Occupation	Address City State Zip	How Long
Other Income if any: Amount $	Alimony, child support, or separate maintenance income need not be revealed	Source of other income

Name and Address of Bank	☐ Savings # ☐ Checking # ☐ Loan #

Credit References Name and Address	Name Account Carried In	Account Number	Balance

Name and Address of Relative or Personal Reference

is authorized to investigate my credit record and to verify my credit employment and income references.

X ____________________

A "Christmas Unit" That Is Different

Hazel Taylor Spitze

In the "olden days" home economics teachers were expected to teach a "Christmas Unit" for at least two weeks before school dismissed for the holidays. It included a "Christmas tea for the mothers" which was preceded by the making of Christmas cookies, Christmas candy, Christmas breads, Christmas decorations for the tea table, and Christmas punch.

This unit also included arts and crafts such as Christmas tree decorations, needlecraft gifts, Christmas stockings to hang "by the chimney with care", and perhaps sequinned place cards or tray favors to take to the old folks' home where the students might sing Christmas carols when they delivered them. Everyone felt sorry for the old folks, but no one even thought of getting acquainted with a few of them personally, or studying about their needs, their contributions to society, or their knowledge of the history of the community.

Is there a better way? Can planning for Christmas be an opportunity to study some *principles* of human relationships, of consumer education including the use of credit, of child development including the selection of toys, of art as Christmas decorations are planned for the house and/or the Home Economics Department, of safety, of nutrition, particularly in relation to weight maintenance?

Would students respond to a simulation such as the following?

Christmas Is Coming!

It is December 1. The Jones family (Mr. & Mrs. Jones and their high school son and daughter) is looking forward to Christmas. They also remember last Christmas. Along with all the good times, they remember some that they would like to avoid this year.

(1) They all gained weight over the holidays and two of them needed very much to maintain their weight or lose a little instead.

(2) They found themselves deeply in debt in January.

(3) They realized that many people have less advantages of many kinds than they do, and that they had done nothing for anyone outside their family last Christmas.

The Joneses also have some new problems this year.

(1) Inflation has caused everything to increase in price.

(2) Unemployment caught up with them this year and Mr. Jones was out of work for two months. He went back to work just before Thanksgiving.

(3) Jobs for teenagers are harder to find and neither Tom nor Linda will be working during the holidays as they did last year.

(4) Mrs. Jones is ill and the doctor thinks she will recover slowly over the next several weeks.

Divide the class into groups of four to represent many Jones families, and let each group draw lots to see which one is Mr. Jones, Mrs. Jones, Tom and Linda.

Let each group make a plan for Christmas which includes budget allocations for

(1) food for Christmas Day
(2) gifts and wrappings
(3) Christmas cards
(4) postage
(5) house and table decorations using no more than ________* total. No debts this time!

Then plan specifically for each category as follows:

(1) Make a list of those persons to whom you will give Christmas gifts, what you will give each one, what the cost will be, and how much of your time will be required to buy or make the gift.

(2) Make a plan for wrapping the gifts attractively at the least possible cost.

(3) Decide how many Christmas cards you will give, whether to make or buy them and how much they will cost.

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*Amount can be decided by teacher and students according to what they think the Joneses could afford, perhaps between $100 and $150.

(4) Calculate the cost of postage considering whether they are postcards (10¢ each), letter types (15¢ each), or whether you will deliver them yourself with no postage.

(5) Plan how you will decorate your house for Christmas (including a Christmas tree if you want one) and calculate the cost.

(6) Plan a Christmas breakfast, dinner, and a light evening meal for 12 (4 grandparents, an aunt and uncle and 2 cousins will be coming) within your budget allocation, remembering to have well-balanced meals nutritionally and to help those who don't need to gain weight.

Should the Joneses plan for any other Christmas expenses? Will they need any new clothes? Will they have any parties? Will there be any travel?

Following these discussions and planning sessions, limited laboratory time (plus time outside of class) can be allowed for each student to do a project which will be shared in an oral presentation to the whole class. All projects and presentations should help the Joneses—and the class members' own families—with Christmas preparations in a time of recession. Examples might be:

(1) Give a demonstration on gift wrapping at no cost. (Use humor and ingenuity to substitute for money—newspapers, old Christmas cards and wrappings, pieces of leftover fabric, hand decorated boxes, old ribbons and string, braided strips of material, opaque plastic bags or onion sacks from the grocery store, etc.).

(2) Make a no-cost or low cost gift for the Joneses which you could actually use in your own Christmas giving. Show and explain to the class.

(3) Give an illustrated talk on no-cost gifts (e.g., "certificates" for your time and skill—6 hrs. of housecleaning, babysitting, snow shoveling, lawn mowing; items made from materials that would have been trash; recycled clothing or accessories; plants you have grown at no cost; dried arrangements of roadside weeds).

(4) Supervise and conduct a "garage sale" in class allowing each student to bring several items and planning for ways they can exchange fairly without using money.

(5) Give a demonstration on homemade Christmas cards or letters that cost little or nothing. Show how a personal touch can add meaning.

(6) Prepare a display of toys and posters that would help parents choose toys for Christmas giving that would be educational, durable, safe, flexible for different uses and different ages, etc. (In 1974 the Toy Manufacturers of America estimated that the average American family spends $85 per child per year for toys and that 1/2 to 3/4 of that is at Christmas time*.)

(7) Give an illustrated talk on children's playthings made from items around the house at little or no cost and show how they can substitute for expensive toys that teach. Use catalogs to show the latter or borrow real toys from stores or friends. Examples of materials to use; tin cans, milk cartons, spools, scraps of fabric, scrap blocks of wood, old magazines for pictures, large cardboard boxes to make child furniture or "playhouse," cardboard cylinders from wax paper.

(8) Make an investigation of the cost of credit at various stores, loan companies, credit unions, banks, etc. and report to the Joneses and the class using specific items and specific figures to show variations and compare with cash buying.

Students and teachers may think of other appropriate projects. If possible, the follow-up after the class presentation could include displays of student work in public places, arrangements to repeat the presentation for some adult group, or appearance on local television.

Another possible project which the whole class could do together would be a trip to a nursing home during which each student becomes personally involved and acquainted with one resident, perhaps by "interviewing" him/her about his/her past Christmases, family, where she/he lived or traveled, hobbies, past occupation, and what she/he remembers about the community in earlier days. Plan for return visits to the same resident if possible.

Back in class, interviews could be reported and discussion could include the values of sharing human relationships.

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*For a good reference on teaching principles of child development, consumer education, and resource conservation via toy selection, see Joyce Nies Richardson, "Selecting Toys: The Choice is Yours." Home Economics Education Series 1005 and Supplement. Vocational Agriculture Service, College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, 434 Mumford Hall. 55¢. Written for students (low reading level, too) with suggestions to teachers.

Support for Home Economics

Dear Congressman or Congresswoman:*

I understand that you will soon be considering amendments to the present vocational education act [or appropriation for vocational education] and I would like to express my views on the importance of Consumer and Homemaking Education as an essential part of this new Act [or appropriation], a *separate* part so that it does not become lost or forgotten.

Consumer and Homemaking Education is necessary for everyone for we are all consumers and members of families. We are also members of the society and contributors to its problems or solutions, according to our preparation and background.

It is related to vocational education in several important ways. Being employable means more than having a job skill. It means:

(1) Physical and mental health that permit regular attendance at work and productivity on the job. This involves
   - (a) attention to nutritional needs
   - (b) household organization that permits adequate rest and avoidance of home accidents
   - (c) sanitation to avoid disease
   - (d) care of the ill that hastens return to work
   - (e) attention to family relationships and a congenial home atmosphere
   - (f) home management that involves cooperation among family members
   - (g) emotional stability which affects absentee and accident rates on the job

(2) Positive attitudes toward work. The manner in which children are reared and the models they see at home affect their desire to work, dependability and responsibility on the job, ability to relate to employer and fellow employees, and even their self confidence in believing they can obtain and hold a job as youth or adults.

(3) Ability to manage home responsibilities along with job responsibilities. Millions of women and increasing numbers of men are managing their dual roles.

Consumer and Homemaking Education contributes to all of the above needs and it also helps to prevent or alleviate many of our social problems today.

Through their choice of both content and method consumer and homemaking teachers of youth and adults can promote the development of a positive *self-concept* which helps people to avoid problems or to solve them satisfactorily.

Our consumer education programs should help people with everyday *decision making* and reduce tension and conflict within the family. They should also be a positive factor in fighting inflation.

Our parenting and family living programs should help reduce *child abuse* and other types of *family violence*.

Consumer and Homemaking programs can also help to *conserve energy* and other non-renewable resources and to preserve our environment as we touch the lives of millions of youth and adults and affect their consumer decisions.

We can help improve the *quality of life* for all as we teach knowledge and skills that enable families to make decisions with lasting satisfaction for them.

I hope that you will exert your influence to see that Consumer and Homemaking is included as a special part to the new amendments [or the new appropriation]. Thank you for your past support.

Sincerely,

Hazel Taylor Spitze

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*This letter is a composite of many I have written to members of Congress to support home economics. It is presented here for whatever help it might be to others writing for such support. It is essential, of course, to write to the right people at the right time, to know the status of the bill, to refer to it by number, and to ask for specific kinds of support. Personal experiences can add concreteness and explain past accomplishments of our profession. Obviously, a letter should not be as long as this composite one!

The Editor

Needed: "Tools" for Tomorrow's Classroom

Patricia A. Tripple*
Professor of Home Economics,
University of Nevada
and
Marjorie B. Keiser*
Professor of Home Economics,
Montana State University

What does the home economics teacher need for tomorrow's classroom? A command of the teaching process? Grounding in home economics subject matter? You bet! Both are usually part of the undergraduate college curriculum, but information doesn't last forever.

Research has revealed an explosion of knowledge in the basic and applied sciences that makes it impossible to maintain a static state in the classroom. As professionals in the field, teachers are bombarded with questions related to their special expertise. They must be able to seek, select, synthesize and interpret this new knowledge for their students. Comprehension of the fields of science underlying the new information, as well as the inherent methodology, facilitates the ability to do so. Familiarity with the supportive natural and social sciences is an aid to interpreting evolving knowledge.

During the undergraduate years, students often depend upon text books and professors to synthesize basic science information that applies to home economics. Without this support, the teacher must assume the interpretive role. If unable to do so, the teacher may

1. repeat misinformation
2. misinterpret information
3. ignore new information, or
4. avoid the incorporation of up-to-date data altogether.

The consequences of these behaviors vary. If misinformation is repeated or new information misinterpreted, the teacher's competency may be questioned. If avoided or ignored the teacher is labeled out of date and others may encroach upon his/her "territory". Increasingly the natural and social science teachers feel prepared to teach at the application level. The chemistry teacher finds it easy to include nutrition in the science program, and the social studies teacher can incorporate consumer education. It is important, then, to determine which sciences are prerequisite to home economics so that the teacher has the tools needed for interpretation.

An assessment of the fields used to generate new knowledge in home economics was made a part of the Home Economics Research Project Inventory.[1] Researchers were asked to classify their projects according to fields of science utilized. More than one field could be reported although no less than 20 percent could be applied to any one field and the total percentage for the project had to equal 100 percent. It is assumed that fields of science reported as utilized by the researchers in the development of new knowledge would be basic or "root" disciplines for interpreting reported data. Researchers in all subject areas reported using background in research methodology, education, and information/communication. Methods of research prepares one to evaluate articles in the popular magazines as well as the research journals. It sets the stage for understanding the way data were collected and whether or not they are reliable. Furthermore, it assists in proposal writing needed today for program innovation and support. Education and information/communication techniques help the teacher transfer the technology evaluated in such a way that it brings about intended behavior.

Table I Field of Study Utilized in Home Economics Subject Areas

HE Subject Areas	*Fields Utilized in Research*	
	in 10% or more of the projects	in 1-10% of the projects
Child Development	educ, info/com, psy, research	anthro, soc
Clothing	educ, info/com, research	chem, physics, anthro, econ, hist, psy, soc
Consumer Education	econ, info/comm, research, educ	psy, soc

(table continued on next page)

*Data were collected in 1978 while Dr. Tripple was a Visiting Scholar at the American Home Economics Association and Dr. Keiser an Intergovernmental Fellow at the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

[1]The Home Economics Research Project Inventory is a monograph written by Keiser and Tripple and published by AHEA, 1980. It reports the research activities of 97 percent of the home economics units in higher education during 1977. The 1,559 projects submitted involved 946 project leaders and $22,175,392.

Table 1 Field of Study Utilized in Home Economics Subject Areas (continued)

Family Studies	educ., info/comm, psy, soc, research	bio, anthro, econ, law
Foods	educ, info/chem, research	bio, chem, econ, soc
Nutrition	educ, info/chem, research	chem, anthro, psy, soc
Housing	educ, info/chem, research	law, psy, soc, bio, chem, phy, econ, hist
Management	educ, law, info/comm, research	phy, econ, psy, soc
Design	educ, info/comm, research	phy, anthro, hist, psy, soc
Textiles	chem, educ, info/comm, research	bio, phy, econ, psy

In approximately half of the 13 major home economics subject areas, biology, chemistry and physics from the natural sciences and anthropology, economics, psychology and sociology from the social sciences, were delineated.

Since the teacher is responsible for the entire array of home economics areas s/he needs enough background and currency in the prerequisite basic sciences to assimulate new knowledge. For each subject area, certain natural and social sciences were stressed, e.g., psychology with child development, economics with consumer-family economics, and psychology and sociology with family studies.

Two Filmstrips:

Nutrition On The Run
Making Sound Decisions

The above two film strips from Consumers' Union Educational Services were recently reviewed at *Illinois Teacher* and found excellent. The series titles is "Exploring the Marketplace."

Nutrition on the Run, in three parts (62, 61 and 78 frames), is concerned with teenagers' diets, especially in relation to "fast food" offerings and snacks. It focuses on the nutritional content of foods at eleven fast food chains analyzed by Consumers Union, including protein, some vitamins and minerals, fat, sugar, and salt. Processed foods and additives are mentioned and attention is called to labeling. Energy value, on calories, is discussed at some length. No mention is made of cost.

A teenager is followed through the day and her dietary habits observed and analyzed along with those of friends she meets. When she has dinner with Marsha who is considering starting a family, the nutrition needs of a pregnant teen are discussed.

It is more interesting than the average film strip and contains a great deal of nutrition information. The Teachers' Guide contains the narrative for the film strip, suggestions for presentation, answer keys to the student booklet (a separate 8-page leaflet), supplementary activities, and a short bibliography.

The address is Consumers' Union Educational Services, Orangeburg, New York 10962.

Making Sound Decisions, also in three parts (78, 53, and 71 frames), teaches decision making via four teenagers' evaluation and choice of a stereo. Their values are an important part of the decision, along with the amount of money they can spend and the qualities of the product. Sources of dependable information are mentioned as well as ways to locate and compare alternatives. A considerable amount of information about stereos is included.

As the teenagers make their decisions, they mention previous purchases and how they learned from their mistakes.

An 8-page student activity booklet is available and the Teachers' Guide includes both narrative and photos of filmstrip, suggestions for presentation, and supplementary activities.

The address is same as above.

The Editor

Early Leaders and Programs of Home Economics at the University of Illinois: 1874-1948*

Margaret Goodyear
Emerita Professor
of Home Economics
University of Illinois

In a review of the origin of Home Economics of any university, I believe we must begin with its admission of women. To put the University of Illinois in perspective, I mention dates this step was taken in several Midwest universities: University of Iowa, 1855; Kansas State University, 1863; Iowa State University, 1869; and University of Illinois, 1870.

In Illinois, the first regent of the University, John Milton Gregory (1869-1880), was responsible for this forward-thinking step and for the establishment of the first program designed explicitly for women.

So it is with him that I wish to introduce a review of early programs of home economics and the philosophies of their administrators. Those responsible for the program were Louisa C. Allen, Isabel Bevier, Ruth Wardall, and Lita Bane.

Regent Gregory, taught history, political economy and philosophy, and was considered the most effective teacher in the College, if not the University. He instituted senior class lectures in which he gave the students moral and ethical guidance. He was considered a moderately progressive thinker.

In 1872, just two years after women were admitted, Regent Gregory announced an intention to establish in the next academic year a school to provide a full course of instruction in Arts of Household Science and the basic sciences relating thereto. This was an advanced idea for women's education and made Illinois a leader in the field.

Regent Gregory stated that he desired a teacher and preceptress—a lady who could comprehend "the grandeur and the importance" for American civilization of special education for women. It was not until 1874 that he found such a person. In writing to Louisa C. Allen in May of that year, he stated, "I have long believed that something can be done, and *ought* to be done to give to women's work, and especially to domestic economy (under which I comprehend all that relates to the creation, the preservation, and operation of a home) the same prominence in our educational places that we give to agriculture and other industrial arts in the education of young men. I want to find some large-hearted, clear-headed, well-educated woman who can comprehend the grandeur and importance of this work to our American civilization and who will be able and willing to throw her whole power into its development as fast as circumstances will permit."[1]

Miss Allen, age 22, a graduate of Illinois State Normal University, who had been reared on an Illinois farm and who was affiliated with the Peoria County Normal School, accepted the position. In her own words her strongest points were elocution, and organizing a department, developing a scientific system of instruction based on Catherine Beecher and Harriet Beecher Stowe's book published in 1869, "*The American Woman's Home*, or Principles of Domestic Science—Being a guide to the Formation and Maintenance of Economical, Healthful, and Beautiful Christian Homes."[2] During the summer, she prepared for the new position by studying in England, visiting New England colleges and working with scientists at Harvard.

Louisa C. Allen

She organized the first scientifically based, integrated course in domestic science in the United States, if not in the world. The object of the school, as stated in the 1877/78 issue of Illinois Industrial University Bulletin, shows the depth of her understanding of the needs for women's education.

"It is the aim of the School to give to earnest and capable young women an education, not lacking in refinement, but which shall fit them for their duties and trusts, making them the equals of their educated husbands and associates, and enabling them to bring the aids of science and culture to the all-important labors and vocations of womanhood.

"This School proceeds upon the assumption that the house-keeper needs education as much as the house-builder, the nurse as well as the physician, the leaders of society as surely as the leaders of senates, the mother as much as the father, the woman as well as the man. We discard the old and absurd notion that education is a necessity to man, but only an ornament to woman . . . If science can aid agriculture and the mechanic arts to use more successfully nature's forces and to increase the

*Presentation for Champaign-Urbana (Il) Area Home Economists May 20, 1980.

amount and value of their products, it can equally aid the house-keeper in the finer and more complicated use of those forces and agencies, in the home where winter is to be changed into genial summer by artificial fires, and darkness into day by costly illumination; where the raw products of the fields are to be transformed into sweet and wholesome food by a chemistry finer than that of soils, and the products of a hundred manufactories are to be put to their final uses for the health and happiness of life. . . .

"The purpose is to provide a full course of instruction in the arts of the household, and the sciences relating thereto. No industry is more important to human happiness and well-being than that which makes the home. And this industry involves principles of science, as many and as profound as those which control any other human employment."[3]

Isabel Bevier

The courses developed to achieve these objectives were of high calibre and included titles such as these: Foods and Dietetics, Domestic Hygiene, Household Esthetics, Home Architecture, and Landscape Gardening. The catalog description of each indicated that principles from the basic discipline of arts and sciences were applied.

The above courses were fitted into a well-rounded liberal curriculum including chemistry, design, literature, history, foreign languages, and physics.

This program was short lived as Louisa Allen resigned in 1880 to become the wife of Regent John Milton Gregory. Even so, between 1874-1880 nine certificates in Domestic Science, and four Bachelor of Science degrees in Domestic Science were granted. These are believed to be the first degrees in the area within the United States.

Regent Gregory resigned from the University and in March, 1881, the School was abolished, ostensibly because of the lack of public demand and the difficulties of staffing and financing. Also it was opposed by Regent Peabody, who served from 1880 to 1891. During his administration, women's groups of the state and the Alumni Association requested the offering of a Domestic Science curriculum but with no success. It was not until 1900 that the vision of a domestic science program again became a reality.

President Andrew Sloane Draper, with support from two women trustees and women's organizations of the state, as well as Eugene Davenport, Dean of the College of Agriculture, recommended the establishment of a Department of Domestic Science in the College of Agriculture. This was approved and Isabel Bevier came to the University to head the department.

President Draper's objectives in setting up the department were as follows:

"What I wished was a university department which would command the respect of other university departments and at the same time make an impression upon the home life of the people, particularly in the farming districts. I wanted a department which was really scientific and knew what it was talking about and could attract students to the fundamental principles upon which the comfort and healthfulness and attractiveness of the home must rest. I cared little about fanciful or spectacular demonstrations in cooking or dressmaking, but a great deal about women being educated so that they would have sound judgment and considerable resourcefulness in determining what a good home needs and how to get it."[4]

Isabel Bevier was well qualified to fulfill these objectives. Of French-Huguenot ancestry, she was born in 1860 on an Ohio farm, the youngest of nine children. She had Bachelor's and Master's degrees from Wooster University, had taught in Ohio Public Schools and then Natural Sciences at Pennsylvania College for Women in Pittsburgh. To increase her competency in the sciences, she was tutored during the summer at the Case School of Applied Sciences in Cleveland by Dr. Albert W. Smith, who told her she gave promise of being a good analyst. At the close of her second summer at Case, Dr. Smith suggested she go to Harvard the next year.

There she studied with W. O. Atwater, the pioneer nutritionist. She also went to Massachusetts Institute of Technology for study with Ellen H. Richards.

In March 1900 Miss Bevier received a letter from President Draper telling of a new department to be established at the University of Illinois and that she had been recommended by Professors Richards and Atwater. He invited her to visit the campus. In her own words, here is her first impression of Champaign-Urbana!

> "I shall never forget my first impressions of the Twin Cities that April day in 1900 when I arrived to be looked over. I was a guest of President Draper, and after luncheon he took me for a drive and I thought I have never seen so flat and muddy a place. No trees, no hills or boundaries of any kind! We went to see Dean Davenport at his home out by the barns, and he and I looked at the New Agriculture Building and talked about farm life and education for it.
>
> "Then I had a conference with that 'gentleman of the old school,' Vice-president Thomas J. Burrill,

on education and life, both of which he understood so well.

"By the time these conferences were completed, I was ready to agree to President Draper's statement, 'We don't have much scenery around here, but we do have a good crowd to work with.'

"I cherish yet that fateful telegram which told me that on April 18, 1900, the trustees had elected me professor of household science. The hour for the decision had come! I was to have my chance; and though I felt unequal for it, I did so want the opportunity! Life in women's colleges had always irked me, had always seemed to me an abnormal life if one lived in the college, as I always was expected to.

"So I sent my acceptance and began at once to collect ideas for my new work. I devoted considerable time that summer to the Lake Placid Conference, which was then and for many years the best source of ideas for this new type of work.

"On September 1, 1900, I arrived in Urbana, settled my possessions, and sought conferences with my superior officers. President Draper told me to visit the various departments and see what I could find that I wanted to incorporate in the new department. My pedometer showed that for three days I had averaged five miles a day in the restricted space between the Engineering Building and the top floor of the Natural History Building, where the department was temporarily located. The New Agriculture Building, following what I afterwards learned was the lot of new buildings, would not be ready for occupancy for at least two months, so no kitchens or laboratories would be available before next semester. That fact was really a blessing because after two months we knew much better what we wanted than we did at the beginning.

"The naming of this new educational child was entrusted to Dean Davenport, Vice-president Burrill, and myself. The three of us wanted science as the basis and the scientific approach to the subject, and it was Dean Davenport who said, 'I believe there will be some day a science of the household. Let's get ready for it and develop it.' So the child was named 'Household Science,' and thus due warning was given that neither a cooking school nor a milliner's shop was being opened at the University. It was decided at the beginning that only about one-quarter of the student's time should be given to special household science courses because of the requirements in science, history, literature, and art, all of which were included in our plan for a liberal education for women.[5]

"The next problem was—what to teach in the first course which must be taught the next week. The program had been advertised all over the state and Vice-president Burrill said something has to be taught."[6]

Miss Bevier enlisted the help of other departments. Mrs. Richards had told her to go to Nathan A. Ricker, Dean of the College of Engineering. Here she found a course consisting of six lecutres each on history of architecture, heating, and plumbing. She grasped at this as a basis for her work, and it was decided that the course should be moved from engineering to Household Science, revamped, and renamed. Professor James M. White, the supervising architect for the University cooperated, too. The opening course was named 'Home Architecture and Sanitation' because Miss Bevier thought she could teach a greater variety of facts about the home under that name than under any other, and she wanted the class to understand early that what they were working at under any and all names was the home. The Lake Placid Conference had suggested that the work in household science center around food, shelter, and clothing; and she chose to begin with shelter so as to have a tangible basis for the work. Professor White taught house planning most successfully; other members of the engineering staff gave lectures on heating, plumbing, and lighting; and she supplied the woman's point of view as regards convenience and workable floor space, and, incidentally, some differences between 'house' and 'home.' Dean Ricker's six lectures were later expanded into a course on 'The History of Architecture,' offered to household science students. Miss Bevier said, "I still think we planned better than we knew when we made that approach to the subject—for many years the only one of its kind in the country."[7]

Catalog copy for the second semester was another hurdle. A review of the catalogs of some nine schools offering domestic science were of little help—since offerings emphasized skills and appeared to be of the "cooking school" type. Again, Miss Bevier called upon the basic science she knew so well, chemistry, and decided on a study of each of the food classifications—protein, fats, and carbohydrates. The first two courses in the area were, "Selection and Preparation of Food" and "Economic Uses of Food." The second-semester offering included the first foods course and a course in Interior Decoration.

Statements from the 1901/02 catalog tell something of the philosophy and purpose of this new program:

"The Household Science Department of the University of Illinois is one of the new departments, being only a little more than a year old. Its position among the departments is somewhat unique because of the correlation of its work with the offerings of other colleges . . . The Household Science

Department of the University of Illinois may be said to put the emphasis upon three things: First, a symmetrical education upon a scientific basis. . . .

"Second, it emphasizes the benefits of applied science for women. . . .

"Third, the Household Science Department asks for the recognition of the home in the education of women, it being the one place to which the energy of most of them is directed. Women are everywhere members of a household; their health, their comfort, and their efficiency oftentimes depend upon a knowledge of household processes and the science which underlies them."[8]

Ruth A. Wardall

The teaching program grew steadily. By 1905 the number of courses had increased to 10, two of which were designated for graduate students and enrollments grew from 20 to 80 in four years. In 1902, the first Home Economics Club was organized. By 1903, funds were allocated for a new women's building which was designed by the New York firm of McKim, Mead and White. It was a beautiful Colonial, U-shaped building and Household Science had the entire north wing. Nineteen hundred and four marked the beginning of graduate study and 1905, the move to the new building. That year, summer courses were offered for teachers.

Research was initiated at the onset of home economics. In 1901, Miss Bevier and her assistant cooked beef for Professor Herbert W. Mumford, Department of Animal Husbandry. The work continued and in 1903 Miss Elizabeth Sprague came to carry on the project. Details of their work are recorded in an agricultural circular, complete with hand painted illustrations of the changes in color of the meat with various cooking procedures.

In 1908, Dr. Nellie E. Goldwaite came to the department as a full-time research worker, the first in the history of home economics! Among other accomplishments she discovered what makes jelly jell.

The Women's Building was enlarged in 1913 so the exterior appeared as we see it now—the English Building. This provided for the quantity food service program and a laboratory for the study of art in relation to the home and to apparel. It also provided a "practice apartment" used by the Home Management students. With the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, the Extension program was expanded and Mamie Bunch became the first State Leader of Home Economics. The Smith-Hughes Act was passed in 1917 and curricula for home economics teachers came of age.

The first World War brought new responsibilities and Miss Bevier was made Chairman of the Committee for Conservation of Food in the Council of National Defense in Illinois and served in the Office of Food Administration in Washington for the months of November and December, 1917.

To say Miss Bevier won national acclaim is putting it mildly. She never ceased to work for the development of Home Economics programs on a national level and to keep her program on the highest of academic levels. She was an important force in the shaping of the course of Home Economics through the Lake Placid Conferences and the Home Economics Association for which she was the second president.

In 1910 Alfred True, Chief of the Office of Experiment Stations, said, "If anyone should ask me to see a real college department of Home Economics, I should send him first to the University of Illinois."[9]

In 1933 Henry Sherman, Columbia University, said, "The scientific esteem in which Home Economics is held in any comparable institution is closely proportional to the fidelity with which it has followed the standards set by Miss Bevier."[10]

The following quotations show more of her personality and philosophy:

First a statement about Miss Bevier made by Lita Bane in 1935:

> "How I wish that I might catch an inspiration that would enable me to depict some of Miss Bevier's fine spirit and kindly humor that has endeared her to all of us. We respect the superiority of her intellect, the accuracy of her judgment, the fine flavor of her words, but we love the warmth of her understanding sympathy, the beauty of her gracious womanliness, the greatness of her generosity and human kindliness."[11]

And a much quoted statement of Miss Bevier's made during the tragic times of World War I:

> "Home Economics, in either peace or war, has a chance to teach something of the beauty of life and the unity of life, to teach that there is an art in a well-ordered home and a well-ordered life; and that perhaps is the greatest thing that home economics has to do."[12]

She retired in 1920 but remained active in home economics affairs and maintained contact with alumni until her death in 1942.

Miss Bevier's successor was one of her own "girls," Ruth Wardall, a native of Tolono, Illinois and one of the first three graduates of the existing department, as well as the first to earn a master's degree in home economics at Illinois. Miss Wardall had continued her graduate studies at the University of

Chicago, Columbia University, and Yale University. She had taught at South Dakota State College, had served as head of the department of Home Economics at Ohio State University, and as the first head of the new department at the University of Iowa. Her special interests were foods and nutrition, and household expenditures. During World War I, she organized a household budget system and savings department for the Cleveland, Ohio, Society for Savings—the first department of its kind which was widely copied by similar institutions. Her appointment as head of home economics at the University of Illinois was approved by the Trustees on June 13, 1921, to become effective the following September 1.

Miss Bessie Packard, long-time office assistant for the department, later recalled Miss Wardall's coming:

> "When Ruth Wardall breezed into the office one fall afternoon in 1921, wearing her long linen duster, gauntlet gloves in hand, hat securely tied on with a long scarf—she had just driven down in her roadster from her summer home in Bay View—it was obvious we were in a new era! She was alert, vigorous, sure of herself after several years' experience in two leading institutions, and yet humble in being called back to her alma mater to head the department of which she was in the first class to be graduated . . . I recall she wrote Miss Bevier that when she came into the building each morning, she paused to glance at Miss Bevier's portrait (then hanging over the mantle in the small parlor across from the Home Economics office) to bolster her inspiration for the day's work."[13]

When Miss Wardall began her administration the spadework had been accomplished, and home economics was firmly planted in the mind of the educated public as a subject worthy of inclusion in a college curriculum. The department had 19 full-time faculty members, and an additional four who taught for the summer session. Although enrollment declined during the early postwar years, there were 364 undergraduate majors—231 from the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, 124 from the College of Agriculture, and 9 from the College of Education. During 1921, two master's and 47 baccalaureate degrees had been granted by the department.

Showing the growing interest in advanced work, the Annual Register for 1921/22 had this preface to the course of study: "This department offers graduate work along two lines, one dealing with the applications of the biological and physical sciences to the problems of food and nutrition; the other with the economic problems of the household."[14]

I believe it is fair to say Miss Wardall carried on and expanded the program so firmly established by Miss Bevier. Hers was an era of growth and there were numerous additions to the curriculum, "all worthy of University credit."

She was plagued with the ever present problem—need for more space and equipment. During 1923/24, a movement for a new building was initiated. It took over 30 years for its fruition. The present Bevier Hall was first occupied in 1956/57.

Home Economics radio programs were introduced and presented twice a week with both extension and residence staff participating.

During these years, the extension program came of age under the direction of Kathryn Van Aken Burns, who became state leader, after having come to the university as a foods specialist during Miss Bevier's regime. Mrs. Burns' belief in adult education and untiring work with the women of the state are responsible for the continued state support of home economics throughout the years.

When Ruth Wardall's administration came to its close the staff had grown to 30 members. Forty courses were being offered, six of them solely for non-major students (an innovation of 1934), and student enrollments had increased with each new year. Programs for graduates, as well as undergraduates, had been expanded and the department's research program was greatly augmented. Scholars such as Julia Outhouse Holmes, E. Evelyn Smith and Sybil Woodruff were highly productive members of her staff. Her administration began during a difficult post-war period and ended just as we were coming out of a deep depression.

During the latter part of her headship, Miss Wardall was in poor health and resigned in June, 1936. Later that summer she died. At that time, Herbert Mumford, Dean of the College of Agriculture, said:

> "Miss Wardall early won for herself a prominent place in the councils of home economics. As a colleague, she was always fine spirited, cooperative, and loyal, not only in her relations to departmental and college interests, but also to those of the University as a whole . . . She was eager to surround her staff with adequate equipment and satisfactory working conditions. Her grace, her dignity, and her cheerful presence will be missed not only in the University, but also wherever home economists gather."[15]

The University Senate noted her contribution to the University as follows:

> "Miss Wardall will always be remembered for her high ideals and professional character, her keen yet sympathetic understanding of people, and her faith in the ability of her staff and students to achieve the goals of home economics."[16]

J. Lita Bane

Miss Lita Bane, student and close friend of Isabel Bevier and a 1912 alumna, succeeded Miss Wardall as department head. She returned to her alma mater with a vast and varied background of experience which included teaching at Washington State College and the University of Wisconsin, food conservation work with the United State Department of Agriculture in Washington during World War I, assistant state leader of home economics extension in Illinois, executive secretary of the American Home Economics Association, and woman's editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal*. She was president of the American Home Economics Association from 1926 to 1928 and was the first to receive that organization's Ellen H. Richards Award, which she used to study at the University of Chicago.

Miss Bane was interested in exploring the social sciences in much the same way her predecessors had explored the physical sciences and to bring together material useful to homemaking. As a part of her master's thesis, she wrote this well-known "Aim for the Homemaker":

To have the home
Economically sound,
Mechanically convenient,
Physically healthful,
Morally wholesome,
Mentally stimulating,
Artistically satisfying,
Socially responsible,
Spiritually inspiring,
Founded upon mutual affection and respect."[17]

During these same years, she wrote the following definition of a home:

"Home

A home is the place of abode of persons bound together by ties of affection, a place where affection of parents for one another, for their children, and among all members of the family is nurtured and enjoyed, where personal hospitality is extended; where the immature are protected and guarded. A place where one may enjoy his individual kind of recreation and share it with others. A place where one may keep his treasures, where one may satisfy his individual tastes; where fundamental culture consisting of customs, language, courtesies, and traditions, is conserved and passed on to the young. A place where regard for others, loyalty, honesty, and other worthy character traits are cultivated; a haven, a sanctuary, and a source of inspiration."[18]

While Associate Editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal*, her articles were scientifically sound, timely, and practical. They were written in a most readable style. Many times they started with a personal statement, such as "First of all, let me confess my utter distaste for trying to make order out of my own dimes and dollars"—as a beginning to a down-to-earth article entitled, "Making Your Money Toe the Mark." Or, she raised pertinent questions and asked for responses. A gem of philosophy or suggestion to the homemaker was frequently boxed on the pages of her articles. For example:

"In Peace and Quiet

Science has recently stated that 'Good food tastefully served in quiet, pleasant places goes a long way toward preventing indigestion.' This is not mere poetry, but actual fact which can be demonstrated in the laboratory . . . Beauty soothes, quiets and relaxes.

"In our hurried, noisy living this might serve as a warning as well as a suggestion."[19]

And another:

"Obsolescence

A few days ago I was working with a friend in her well-equipped kitchen—range, refrigerator, cabinet, all were late models.

"But the paring knife she was using had warped until it pinched her hand as she worked.

"I noticed, too, that her egg beater in addition to its noisy rattle, skipped a beat occasionally.

"It occurred to me that along with the campaign to eliminate automobiles that are too nearly worn out to be safe we might launch a campaign against kitchen tools that are so nearly worn out that they do not do their work well and are annoying to the user.

"We seem convinced that replacement is a good thing where large pieces of equipment are concerned, but many of us still need to apply the principle to small tools if we are to do our work easily and with the least amount of annoyance.

"Someone would be doing kitchens a great service were they to provide a decent and proper burial ground for badly worn tools."[20]

When Miss Bane came to campus in the autumn of 1936, the effects of the depression were in evidence everywhere. While the enrollment in home economics had held up, registration was down for the University in general. The majority of students were working their way through school, and many who would have been willing to do so could not find jobs.

Another sign of the budgetary stress was the notice sent to members of the faculty, asking them to bring their own pens, pencils, and ink when reporting for registration duty.

Landmarks during her administration included a story of the calcium needs of children in cooperation with Cunningham Children's Home under the direction of Dr. Julia O. Holmes and the assignment of residences for human research studies—the "Calcium Kids" with teen-age boys, and a protein study with adult women, directed by Janice M. Smith. These were *firsts* for the University of Illinois.

Dr. Nellie Perkins joined the faculty, bringing a child development laboratory to the department. The study of the child and family was entrenched in the curriculum. Minors in home economics for journalism students, and in journalism for home economics students, were approved, and courses for occupational therapy students were introduced.

As did Miss Bevier during the first world war, Miss Bane saw us through the second world war with a steady hand and sympathetic ear.

Because of poor health, Miss Bane retired in the fall of 1948. Throughout the remainder of her life, she continued to be an inspiration to staff and students alike. She lived to be present at the laying of the cornerstone of the present Bevier Hall. She died in February 1957. Our new building was dedicated in the spring of that year, and Dr. Janice Smith said this regarding her as part of the dedication ceremonies:

"As head of the Home Economics Department at the University of Illinois, she placed high value on scholarly attainment and worked diligently to further the department in sound scientific research, inspired undergraduate and graduate teaching and an efficient extension service. To this academically strong program, which had been the aim of many of the pioneers in Home Economics, she added a warmth and understanding of the needs of human beings which were peculiarly her own.

"As one of the few women administrators on the campus, she guided the department through the difficult years of depression followed by World War II and recovery. Her door was always open to her students, her staff, other faculty members and administrators. She had a ready ear for their problems and a manner which enabled the person to work out his own solutions and to leave her presence with self-respect intact and some plan for carrying on. Her ready humor, her fund of quotations appropriate for many situations, and her respect for the dignity and worth of man were a source of inspiration to all who came in contact with her.

"Miss Bane has been described by one of her colleagues as the 'poet' of Home Economics. Because of her clear thinking, her understanding and love for people, her dedication to home economics, she was often called on to write and speak for and about the program.

"This leader had a compelling influence on the advance of Home Economics in the United States and hence on the training of women throughout the world. A scholar, philosopher, and gentlewoman she was revered by many. People who met her casually and for a short time said, 'I felt I knew her; she was so real and genuine.' Literature, history, economics, management, understanding, and love of people were her tools. With these she shaped a philosophy of home economics which is respected by both men and women and by professional as well as non-professional people."

Always the philosopher, her statements have enduring value, e.g., this one concerning the role of home economics:

"It is my conviction that the problems confronting society today will not be solved by men alone nor by women alone but by joint effort in which one supplements the other . . . Limiting barriers must come down and together men and women must study homes, these miniature democracies beset by most of the ills that plague the world. And as solutions are found for the problems of these basic social units, so will the larger society become healthier in mind and body. The time is at hand for home economics to write a new chapter in its history, one in which the natural and social sciences continue to play an important role but one in which the arts, philosophy, history, literature and other areas of the humanities play an equal role."[21]

These four women gave to the University of Illinois, and particularly to home economics, a rich heritage of philosophy, scholarly curricula, research, and extension programs.

It is appropriate to mention some tangible evidence of appreciation of their contributions which we enjoy continuously.

We have two endowments for lecture series—one for Isabel Bevier, the other for Lita Bane—each dedicated to the furthering of their philosophies of Home Economics.

Miss Wardall's brother, William J. Wardall, made a very generous bequest to the University in her honor, the income of which provides a fellowship for a woman graduate student in nutrition, food chemistry or related subject.

Three buildings carry home economics leaders' names: Allen and Wardall residence halls, and of course our own Bevier Hall.

It seems to me it would be appropriate for another, the Child Development Building, to carry the name of a leader in our field, Lita Bane. How about the promotion of this idea as a project for our Alumni Association!

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Foreword

The Education and Rehabilitation of Handicapped Persons

1981 has been designated by the United Nations as the "Year of the Disabled." It is fitting that the eighties begin with a focus on this group as an extension of the considerable legislation from the seventies which mandated that new educational programs and rehabilitation services be provided. The purpose of this issue of *Illinois Teacher* is to help home economists translate the mandates of the seventies into the roles and realities of working with handicapped persons and their families in the decade to come.

All of the authors who wrote articles for this issue of the *Illinois Teacher* live in the state of West Virginia. Articles were contributed by home economists, teacher educators, classroom teacher, counselors, parents, special educators and rehabilitation counselors, educators, and administrators.

The challenges and opportunities presented in working with the handicapped are dealt with from a number of perspectives. Various issues in developing and implementing home economics programs in the mainstreamed classroom are addressed in several articles. Articles are included on teaching students with specific types of handicapping conditions, e.g., the Trainable Mentally Retarded and the blind. A number of authors deal with home economics content areas and their relationship to the particular needs of handicapped persons. Parental concerns and the need for family counseling are discussed by some of the writers. And, rehabilitation issues are explored in many of the articles mentioned above as well as in those articles on professional opportunities for home economists to work with the handicapped.

Sharon Redick
Ron Redick
Nora MacDonald
Joann Guthrie,
Guest Editors

Editor's Note:

We are grateful that our West Virginia colleagues were interested in guest editing this issue of *Illinois Teacher* and in focusing on this current concern of educating the handicapped. They have much to share and I'm sure you'll find it helpful in your work.

Hazel Taylor Spitze

Corrections for Volume XXIV, No. 1, article by Margaret Goodyear, "Early Leaders and Programs of Home Economics at the University of Illinois: 1874-1948."

Page 46, paragraph 7 had two lines the typesetter and proofer missed and should read:

> Miss Allen, age 22, a graduate of Illinois State Normal University, who had been reared on an Illinois farm and who was affiliated with the Peoria County Normal School, accepted the position. In her own words, her strongest points were elocution, physiology and botany. She defined her job as overseeing all female education, and organizing a department, developing a scientific system of instruction based on Catherine Beecher and Harriet Beecher Stowe's book published in 1869, "The American Woman's Home, or Principles of Domestic Science—Being a guide to the Formation and Maintenance of Economical, Healthful, and Beautiful Christian Homes." During the summer, she prepared for the new position by studying in England, visiting New England colleges and working with scientists at Harvard.

Page 52, paragraph 3 said *story* instead of *study* and should read:

> Landmarks during her [Lita Bane] administration included a study of the calcium needs of children in cooperation with Cunningham Children's Home under the direction of Dr. Julia O. Holmes and the assignment of residences for human research studies—the "Calcium Kids" with teen-age boys, and a protein study with adult women, directed by Janice M. Smith. These were *firsts* for the University of Illinois.

And on the front cover this article had an extra word in the title. It is a history of *home economics,* not home economics education.

Illinois Teacher apologizes for these errors.

Mainstreaming and Classroom Management

Sharon Redick
Associate Professor,
Home Economics Education
Department of Family
Resources
and
Ron Redick
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Coordinator of
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West Virginia University

As home economics teachers face the challenge of working with increasing numbers of handicapped students in their classrooms, they are identifying possible barriers to effective mainstreaming. Problems created by the mainstreaming movement are perceived as existing at both the administrative level and the instructional level. Teachers identified as administrative those problems involving the school's fixed daily schedule of classes, time segments allocated for class periods, mandated procedures for grading or marking, predetermined or inflexible course offerings, random assignment of students to classes, and the lack of instructional aides. Instructional problems are related to available media resources, textbooks, reading materials, physical facilities and equipment.

Managing the Learning Process

A positive approach to dealing with these administrative and instructional problems requires home economics teachers to analyze carefully the characteristics of their particular classroom situations and to ascertain how best to provide the needed educational services for handicapped students. Such an analysis would involve examining the organizational and managerial elements of their curricular and instructional operation, clarifying the extent and kind of actual control they exercise over the learning environment, and determining priorities. Critical to the success of organization/management schemes is an understanding of administrative and instructional variables over which home economics teachers have direct control. (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1. Factors the Teacher Controls

Time	*Grouping of Students*	*Curriculum*	*Evaluation*	*Resources and Materials*
1. Within Period	1. Large	1. Objectives	1. Purposes	1. Textbooks
2. Within week	2. Small	2. Concepts and content	2. Frequency	2. Reference material
3. Within semester	3. Diads	3. Learning activities	3. Scaling	3. Handout material
4. Within Year	4. Individual		4. Types	4. Bulletin boards
			5. Criteria	5. Interest centers
			6. Items	6. Audiovisual materials
				7. Equipment

While home economics teachers may be unhappy with the inflexibility of the "lock-step" daily schedule of classes and set length of class periods typical of secondary schools, it is far more productive to concentrate on utilizing the control they have over blocks of student time during a year or years, semester or quarter, week and day. Organizing and managing student time on a daily basis without a view of the total time available for that student to deal with course objectives prevents the optimum use of this organizational/management variable.

There may be little the home economics teacher can do about changing the school's grading policy, but it is worthwhile to review those aspects of student learning over which the teacher retains jurisdiction and which provide the basis for the assignment of grades. The home economics teacher determines the learning objectives to be mastered, presents students with content and learning activities related to those objectives, develops the assessment devices used to measure and evaluate student accomplishments and reports student progress in realizing the objectives. While the teacher may not determine which textbooks or materials are purchased, they do determine how and when they will be used.

Models of Classroom Management. Home economics teachers have a great deal of control over the instructional aspects of their classrooms. They, for example, can structure student time flexibly and employ intraclass student grouping arrangements in order to meet the needs of various types of learners in their classrooms. Construction of organization/management models of instruction based upon these concepts would encompass the variables of learning objectives, content and learning activities, time allotment, evaluation methods, and grouping patterns. (See Figure 3.) These five "flexibility variables" can be manipulated to provide variations in classroom organization/management patterns that can take into account more fully the needs of all students in a class.

Examples of organization/management models built upon the relationships between the five flexibility variables follow.

Model 1.

In the first model, the flexible variables are student grouping and learning activities. Students would initially spend ten minutes in a large group session during which the teacher would focus on establishing set for the day's work. They would then be divided into small groups where learning activities would be specifically designed to meet their needs. In determining the learning activities employed, the teacher would consider the learning styles most appropriate for each student. Activities could be designed to suit the audio learner, the visual learner and the kinesthetic learners. While learning activities would vary, the objectives, content, time spent in particular groups and evaluation methods would remain the same for each student. Following the small group activities the students would return to the large group setting for general review. At this time the major concepts of the lesson would be reviewed and the teacher would check to determine whether misconceptions had developed during the small group sessions. This management model permits small groupings to meet individual needs but because of the large group activity the feeling of being "set apart" as "different" students is not likely to occur.

Model 2.

This model depicts an organization where students would be divided into three groups for the major part of the class period but would form a large group for the last fifteen minutes. (See Figure 2.) Group one would start with a teacher directed activity for fifteen minutes and then have 20 minutes for filmstrip viewing. This group could be composed of those students who need the teacher's attention to begin a task and those who are visual learners. Group 2 is composed of creative, active students who learn better by doing. In this case, the students in group two develop a skit the first 20 minutes of class. During the next twenty minutes the teacher reviews the skit and makes final suggestions for the performance to follow. During this time group three, composed of students who work well on their own, have been involved in individual study using an interest center. The last fifteen minutes of the period group two will perform the skit for groups one and three while group three has the responsibility of summarizing the major points dealt with in the skit. Note that in this model the flexible variables are student grouping, learning activities and time spent at each activity. All students would be expected to meet the same objectives and be evaluated on a similar basis.

Figure 2. Classroom Management Model 2.

Variable Use In Relation to Students	*Variables*	
SAME	Objectives	Evaluation
DIFFERENT	Time	Learning Activities

* *

Grouping of Students

	Group 1	*Group 2*	*Group 3*
20 Min.	Teacher directed activity	Small group develops skit	Individual study Use of interest center
20 Min.	View filmstrip Complete viewing guide	Teacher reviews skit	Continue individual study
15 Min.	View skit	Present skit	View skit and summarize

Model 3.

Again, in this model, students would be divided into three groups, but each group would cover the same content in the same time period. Objectives, learning activities and evaluation methods would differ for each small group. A teacher might plan a laboratory lesson in which all students are involved in essentially the same task, but the emphasis is placed on different levels of objectives. For example, a teacher may divide students into three group based on levels of capability and experience in food preparation. Group one may consist of students with limited experiences, and the emphasis will be placed on identification and knowledge level objectives. Group two may have had some experience but limited skills, and the same activity could be done with emphasis on skill development. Group three may have had more extensive experiences in food preparation, and the activity may be designed to apply knowledge and skills.

Model 4.

In model four the class is divided into three groups with each group participating in a teacher directed activity, a small group activity, and individual study but the sequence of these activities would vary, with each group spending equal time in the same activity. (See Figure 3.) In this model, content, learning activities, objectives, and evaluation methods are specifically designed for each group. This model permits the teacher to spend equal time with each group of students and provides flexibility for designing different lessons for each group. It is possible that each group may be working on different content areas of home economics. This model is particularly helpful where special needs students are mainstreamed into classes that are already composed of students at two grade and experience levels, such as Home Ec I and Home Ec II. This model can be sequenced for use within a class period, for example, each activity lasting 20 minutes, or over a three day cycle.

Figure 3. Classroom Management Model 4.

Variable Use In Relation to Students	*Variables*
SAME	Time
DIFFERENT	Objectives Evaluation Learning Activities

* *

Grouping of Students

Group 1	*Group 2*	*Group 3*
Teacher directed	Small group	Individual study
Individual study	Teacher directed	Small group
Small group	Individual study	Teacher directed

Model 5.

This model is uniquely suited to programs where learning packages are used and basic core concepts are taught by the teacher. In a five day instructional cycle, on "Day One" the teacher directs a large group session which concentrates on course core concepts. On "Day Two" the class is divided by interest into small groups for study and planning and on "Days Three, Four and Five" students study independently and/or in small groups in either classroom or laboratory settings. The one variable which remains the same for each student is a study of the basic core concepts, with all other flexibility variables varying according to the interest or determined need of the student.

The above five models provide examples of how teachers can organize and manage a classroom of mainstreamed students through the control of selected variables, i.e., student grouping patterns, learning objectives, learning activities, content, time allotment, and evaluation methods to meet the varying needs of all students.

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Curriculum Adaptation Through Task Analysis

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Teachers are concerned that with the admission of handicapped students into the regular classroom they will have to develop and implement a new curriculum in addition to the existing program. This should not be the case. Handicapped students need to learn to read, write, compute, make decisions, and solve problems just as non-handicapped students must. Essential content and skills are as necessary for the handicapped student to master as for anyone else. Once a teacher accepts the premise that basic program content and skills are the same for *all* students, it becomes a somewhat easier job to teach the handicapped. The teacher who has clearly identified what is to be learned, why it is to be learned, and ways and means to measure whether it has been learned, can focus greater attention on how it can be learned.

Curriculum adaptation then becomes a matter of stating the objectives, both content and skill, which students should meet along with the steps they must accomplish to achieve these objectives, an approach referred to as task analysis. This approach has been used extensively by special educators to structure teaching/learning situations for handicapped students. The technique is appropriate for use with both special education and average learners. Teachers who utilize task analysis find that they are more effective as instructional planners, implementers, and learning evaluators because this procedure enables them to bring greater precision and clarity to student learning efforts.

It is imperative that instruction for the handicapped be as systematic as possible. These students learn best when content and/or skills are broken down into small, discrete learning segments which can be dealt with individually. Chaining related segments together in a logically organized sequence that leads students to the final goal of task accomplishment is the ultimate test of effective instruction and successful learning.

Description of Task Analysis

The expression "task analysis" was coined by applied psychologists concerned with the teaching/learning process. It is a procedure whereby the teacher specifies a task (stated as a terminal objective) for students to accomplish and then identifies the sequential series of steps or actions (enabling objectives) required for students to demonstrate that they are progressing to the successful performance of the task.

Enabling objectives are sets of discrete, related statements, arranged in sequential order from the simplest to the most complex. Each enabler denotes a behavior (subtask) that learners must perform to gain the knowledge and/or skills necessary to accomplish the terminal objective. Enabling objectives are developed according to the knowledge and/or skills already possessed by students relative to the task. This level of learners' knowledge and/or skills is designated as their "entering (or entry level) behavior." It indicates where students stand in regard to their ability to deal with a specified task, i.e., what they know and can do when they attempt to accomplish the first enabling objective in the sequence toward task achievement.

A simple example of a task analysis will serve to illustrate the concepts of terminal objectives, entering behavior, and enabling objectives. Students enrolled in a food service program may need to learn how to make change. If that is the case the following task analysis could be employed to initiate development of that skill.

Terminal Objective:

The student will be able to count out the correct change up to $1.00 using the fewest number of coins possible.

Entering Behavior:

1. The student understands what money is and how it is used.
2. The student can identify each type of coin by name and state its value in number of cents.
3. The student can count from one to one hundred.
4. The student can add and subtract combinations of numbers between one and one hundred.

Enabling Objectives:

1. Identify each coin by name and state its value in number of cents. (Review)

2. Change five pennies for each nickel.
3. Change two nickels for each dime.
4. Change one nickel and two dimes for each quarter.
5. Change two quarters for each half-dollar.
6. Identify all coin equivalents, (e.g., five pennies = 1 nickel, etc.).
7. Count by 50's, 25's, 10's, 5's, and 1's.
8. Substitute coins of higher value for combinations of lower value coins.
9. Recognize correct change.
10. Count out various coin combinations.

Presumably, if students can exhibit the entering behaviors listed and they work their way successfully through instructional materials based on the given enabling objectives, they can accomplish the task of making change at the skill level specified.

The strategy for doing a task analysis is quite simple. For each task the teacher asks, "What knowledge and/or skills will students need to reach this terminal objective?" Having identified the major components of the task, the teacher asks for each component, "What subskills and subconcepts must students possess to master this component?" Subskills and subconcepts are analyzed in a similar manner when necessary. Eventually the teacher traces back to skills and/or knowledge that are part of students' entering behavior. This is the point at which the analysis stops.

An important requirement is that task analysis include all of the components. It is surprisingly easy to overlook components in the complex skill required to successfully complete a task. A helpful procedure is to mentally "walk through" the task. The teacher tries to visualize each of the steps in a given task, in the order that they occur, and writes down the steps in that order.

A task could be subdivided indefinitely, but for each subtask or component skill, the analysis is detailed enough when the intact skill is part of students' entering behavior. When students can perform a given enabling objective on request, then the skill has been analyzed in sufficient detail.

Role of Task Analysis

A task analysis is like a schematic drawing or map; it is an outline of how a task is performed and, in a sense, a blueprint of what students are expected to learn. The main purpose of task analysis is to provide teachers with guidelines for the development and selection of teaching materials and techniques. It furnishes a basis for the design of instruction.

Many seemingly simple tasks are actually quite complex. When teachers perform tasks automatically, they may underestimate the difficulty students experience as they attempt to do them. Task analysis provides teachers with a vehicle to insure that students have learned the content and/or skills prerequisite to achievement of assigned tasks.

A task analysis approach can yield student performance data not typically obtained by teachers. Use of task analysis enables teachers to pinpoint specific functioning levels of students and thus serves a useful diagnostic purpose. In addition, the use of task analysis provides a basis for sequential learning that moves students toward task accomplishment at a pace appropriate for them as individuals.

Teacher to Teacher: My Challenge in Teaching the Trainable Mentally Retarded in Home Economics[1]

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The primary goal in teaching home economics to Trainable Mentally Retarded (TMR) students is to develop their independent living skills: basic grooming, dressing and clothing, food selection and preparation, home care, and safety. My TMR students meet for an entire day in a special class in the Preston County Vocational Center in Kingwood, West Virginia. It is possible for them to be in my program four to five years. Students range in chronological age from 15 to 21 and have a learning rate approximately 1/2 that of "normal" students. They can learn basic skills, but they will not be able to live independently without supervision.

Teaching Strategies for Trainable Mentally Retarded Students

TMR students can progress toward independence if the teacher adjusts the teaching strategies to meet the needs of these special students. The following need to be considered: reinforcement, task analysis, demonstrations, establishing a routine, and evaluation. These, combined with strict discipline, can lead to success in working with TMR students.

Reinforcement. The first thing I learned in working with TMR students is never to take anything for granted. I cannot assume that they will know something today because they knew it yesterday. They may remember what is being taught while they are working on that particular unit; but once you go on to something else, all may be forgotten from the previous unit. I must repeat almost everything. If a student is in my program for more than two years, s/he begins to retain some of the material.

It is important to give TMR students constant reinforcement and let them know when they are doing something right. They never proceed independently even when they know how to do something. They tell me what they want to do and then wait for my approval before attempting to do it. I have found that retention problems are reduced if learning deals with hands-on tasks.

Task Analysis. Tasks must be broken down into steps as TMR students are unable to do this independently. They cannot be told to "Wash your hair" with the expectation that they will be able to do it. Instead, students are instructed to: 1) get the shampoo and towel, 2) wet hair, 3) use the shampoo, 4) rinse their hair, 5) towel dry and comb their hair, and 6) blow dry their hair. If one of the necessary steps is omitted, it is possible that an important step such as using the shampoo could be omitted. By using picture check lists of the task components, independence is encouraged.

Task analysis and reinforcement can be used to compensate for the students' inability to reason abstractly. For example, when a student runs out of thread, s/he does not get nor ask for more; instead s/he just sits. It is up to the teacher to spot the problem. Another abstract reasoning problem is encountered during the foods unit when the concepts of liquid and dry measurements are presented. Students learn to measure 1, 1/2, 1/3, or 1/4 cup, but it is difficult for them to understand 2, 1 1/2, or 3/4 cup, etc. They do not grasp the concept. By reinforcing all the sub-components of these tasks, students can learn to deal with them.

Demonstrations. Demonstration is an excellent teaching technique for use with TMR students. Verbal explanations alone are of little value as many TMR students have inadequate listening skills and their limited vocabulary inhibits their understanding. In addition, their attention spans are very short. "Show and tell" is the most effective teaching strategy. After seeing a demonstration, a student can usually narrate what the demonstrator is doing the second time. Even with this aid a demonstration may need to be repeated several times.

Perhaps the biggest problem in teaching TMR students is their inability to read; therefore, rote learning must be used. For example, in a two-week unit on teaching safety practices in the kitchen, we first go over all the safety rules and the students then draw pictures to illustrate each rule. We

[1]The author is indebted to Janice Raneri and Patricia C. Allison for their assistance in planning and preparing the article.

review the previous day's lesson every day. To evaluate their learning, I simulate hazardous conditions in the kitchen and have each student identify as many as possible.

Establishing a Routine. It is helpful to develop a classroom routine so that students know what is expected of them each day. The students perform better if a routine is established so they can experience success and independence. Grooming is one routine that has been set up in my classroom. Upon entering, students brush their teeth and wash their hands. This is necessary because the majority of students come from disadvantaged families and do not learn basic grooming skills at home. Some students may then need to wash their hair and/or bathe. Once the grooming tasks are completed, they go to their seats and get out their assigned work. The routine may vary at this point as each student works on a suitable individualized project. At a specified time, the students take a break; they also put away their work each day at a certain time. By doing as many things as possible at set times and in specific ways, the TMR students become more independent.

Another routine has been developed for foods laboratories. A checklist helps establish the routine and also aids in the grading process. The kitchen routine is as follows:

1. Put on a hair net and apron.
2. Wash hands.
3. Gather ingredients listed in recipe. (Students have been taught to recognize basic ingredients —flour, sugar, etc.)
4. Assemble needed utensils. (These would have been discussed in detail prior to lab.)
5. Prepare recipe.
6. While product is cooking, clean the kitchen.
    a. Put away ingredients.
    b. Wash utensils.
    c. Wipe counter tops and stove.
    d. Scour sink.
    e. Sweep and mop floor.
7. Check kitchen for cleanliness before leaving.

A chart can be made by using pictures to represent the tasks so that students have a checklist they can use.

Evaluation. Another challenge that presents itself when working with TMR students is evaluation. Determining the evaluation techniques to be used is difficult unless the teacher has had special preparation for working with these students. Initially I believed that the highest grade I would ever give was an 'F' as I was not prepared to evaluate the TMR student as an individual. I wanted to judge him/her by the standards that I would set for a 'normal' student. I have since realized that the only fair and acceptable method of evaluating the TMR student is on improvement. Only after four years am I satisfied to evaluate my students on the basis of individual progress.

A checklist serves to evaluate most skills effectively. I make a list of behaviors that I expect to see exhibited while students perform a task. I look for improvement from the beginning of the task to the end, evaluate what the student is capable of doing, and how much each student has achieved. Rarely is the finished product graded.

An Innovative Program Addition

This year my students are gaining a new experience in their pre-vocational training. They are serving the hot lunch to all special class students who spend the day at the vocational school. The meal is prepared at another cafeteria, transported to our school, and then served from the food service area. My students first studied sanitation and cleanliness in the kitchen and received food handler's cards. Each day, one-half hour before lunch, they get ready by putting on aprons and hats and scrubbing their hands and nails. The students have their lunch before serving and are therefore less likely to sample the food. They are assigned a food item from the menu to serve and a clean-up responsibility. In addition, they have learned how to operate a dish washing machine, how to serve cafeteria style, how to wash counters and tables, and how to sweep a floor using a push broom. As a result of this experience, many of the students are more employable and even more importantly, they enjoy doing it and believe they are doing something worthwhile.

Continued on bottom of next page

Curriculum Materials for the Blind Student in the Clothing Construction Laboratory

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and
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The blind student presents a unique challenge to the clothing construction teacher because sewing relies so heavily on the use of visual cues. In order to determine the equipment and/or technique adaptations necessary to teach the totally blind to sew independently, a study was conducted at West Virginia University. Seven basic procedures in clothing construction were evaluated in the study: 1) grain, 2) pattern layout and marking, 3) cutting, 4) machine threading, 5) machine tension, 6) machine stitching, and, 7) machine stitched hems.

A review of the pertinent literature revealed that few resources were available that dealt specifically with clothing construction for the blind.[1] It was found that several basic concepts and skills the totally blind students needed to understand to sew independently were not covered in the available literature. These concepts were: straightening fabric, notches, transferring notches to fabric, pivoting, accurately measuring fabric folds, a comparison of shears and scissors to produce accurate pattern cutting, and identifying correct machine tension. It was believed that congenital totally blind students could learn to sew independently if more tactile cues were incorporated into the teaching strategy than are necessary for the partially sighted, adventitiously blind.[2]

During the Fall semester of 1978, adaptations to clothing construction equipment and teaching procedures were pre-tested on blind-folded college students enrolled in a course on "Clothing for the Handicapped and Aged". These adaptations were refined and then evaluated by a totally blind college student.[3] Further modifications were made and two totally blind high school students, and a totally blind rehabilitation client evaluated the resulting adaptations during fall of 1979 at the West Virginia Rehabilitation Center.

Final evaluation of the instructional materials was made during fall of 1979 with four totally blind and one partially sighted high school student at the West Virginia School for the Blind. Lesson plans included basic concepts required for independence in sewing. Students tested different approaches to a given problem within the framework of each lesson plan. Two of the students completed a drawstring bag (Figure 1), while the other three completed a pillowcase. The first two lesson plans were presented by the researchers while the home economics teacher presented the remainder.[4]

All participants in the study had a limited amount of previous experience in clothing construction and had used sighted assistance for several aspects of the construction process. In this study, sighted assistance was used for pattern preparation. A summary of the areas evaluated follows.

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[1]Adele Brown, *So What About Sewing* (Chicago, IL: The Catholic Guild, No date).

Janice Crane, *Sewing—Behavioral Objectives for Teaching Older Adventitiously Blind Individuals* (New York: New York Infirmary, Center for Independent Living, 1978).

Sally Jones, *Sewing Techniques for the Blind Girl* (Louisville, Kentucky: American Printing House for the Blind, 1977).

Roena J. Markle, *Household Arts: A Curriculum Guide* (Pittsburgh, PA: The Greater Pittsburgh Guild for the Blind, 1977).

Jessie Warden, *Clothing Construction Teaching Modules Designed for Mainstreamed Visually Impaired Students* (Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, No date).

[2]Congenital means at birth; adventitious means occurring after birth.

[3]The authors are indebted to Louisa Coffin, WVU '79, who tested the initial ideas for her senior project.

[4]The authors are indebted to Connie Corder, Home Economics teacher, West Virginia School for the Blind, Romney, WV, who tested the refined lesson plans.

(continued from page 60)

Summary

Home economics can help Trainable Mentally Retarded students to become self-sufficient. Teachers who understand learning principles, classroom management, and the characteristics of Trainable Mentally Retarded students can meet the challenges of teaching these special needs students.

Figure 1. The completed drawstring bag.

Grain. The concept of grain was tactually demonstrated by the use of six-inch burlap squares (Figure 2). Students were asked to unravel yarns along a crosswise and lengthwise edge. After finding the center of each frayed edge, several yarns perpendicular to the edge were pulled out. Students were then directed to run their fingers along the ridges created by the pulled yarns. They noted a complete absence of yarns in the center of the sample. During a second tactual exercise which illustrated differences in fabric directions, students were asked to pull a 6" square of firmly woven fabric on the lengthwise, crosswise, and bias directions while noting that the fabric stretched very little, some, and a lot, respectively.

A woven pillow cover using grosgrain ribbon in one direction and satin ribbon in the other was then made to represent lengthwise and crosswise yarns in a plain weave. The ribbons were held in position temporarily by pinning them to a padded ironing board cover (Figure 3). Ribbons were placed right side down so that students could fuse iron-on interfacing to the back side of the pillow cover to secure the weaving until pillows were completed with a backing and stuffing (Figure 4).

Straightening off-grain fabric was the final aspect of grain explored. Students were directed to clip the selvage and tear fabric along one crosswise yarn. The selvage edge was placed parallel to the long edge of a rectangular table so that the torn edge ran next to the short end of the table (Figure 5). Students felt to see if the crosswise direction of the fabric ran parallel to the short edge. They were instructed to pick up the fabric where it did not meet the table edge (point A, Figure 5) and pull the entire length of fabric on the bias until it returned to right angle alignment. Students re-checked the fabric to see that it lined up with the table edge.

Pattern Layout and Marking. Sighted assistance was used to tactually mark patterns. Masking tape placed along the lengthwise grain marking was selected over tracing wheel perforations, machine stitching perforations or yarn glued to the grainline. Masking tape was a more feasible tactile grainline marker as students progress from brown paper patterns with tape-bound edges to commercial tissue paper with tape-bound edges. Students had no trouble measuring from the edge of the masking tape grainline to the fabric selvage using a tactually marked tape measure (Figure 6).[5] Braille rulers could also be used to measure straight grain.

Pilot tests with students showed that traditional methods of cutting notches outward, inward or making a small clip were not satisfactory marking guides for the totally blind. Instead, layers of masking tape were placed at the pattern edge to provide a tactile cue for notches which were further marked with staples, "V"-shaped or square cutouts (Figure 7). Students transferred the notches to their fabric using small safety pins, straight pins, and tailor tacks. Students were found to prefer the square notch and marking with safety pins.

Cutting. Six-inch paper squares were used to test the following: pins, pinning method, pattern type, shears, and cutting method. Tissue paper, typing paper, and brown paper were used, with and without a masking tape edge binding. Typing paper or brown paper with masking tape binding served as better tactile guides for the students.

Students were encouraged to use wrist pin cushions so that pins would not be misplaced or spilled during construction procedures. Both large-head pins and regular pins were evaluated; students indicated a preference for large head pins as they were easier to grasp and manipulate. Students ob-

[5]Tape measures, marked with one staple at inch intervals and crossed staples at foot markings are available from the American Foundation for the Blind, Inc., 15 West 16th Street, New York, NY 10011.

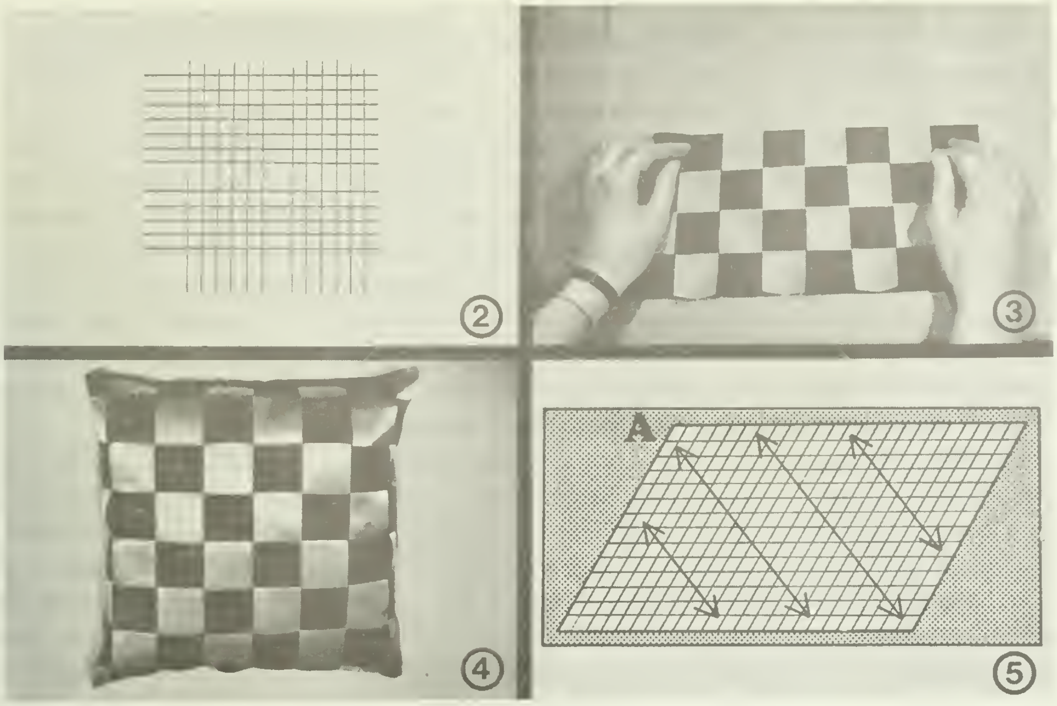

Figure 2. Six-inch burlap square used to tactually demonstrate grain.

Figure 3. Weaving pillow cover at the ironing board.

Figure 4. The completed woven pillow.

Figure 5. Straightening fabric on a rectangular table. Arrows indicate direction to pull off-grain fabric to straighten it.

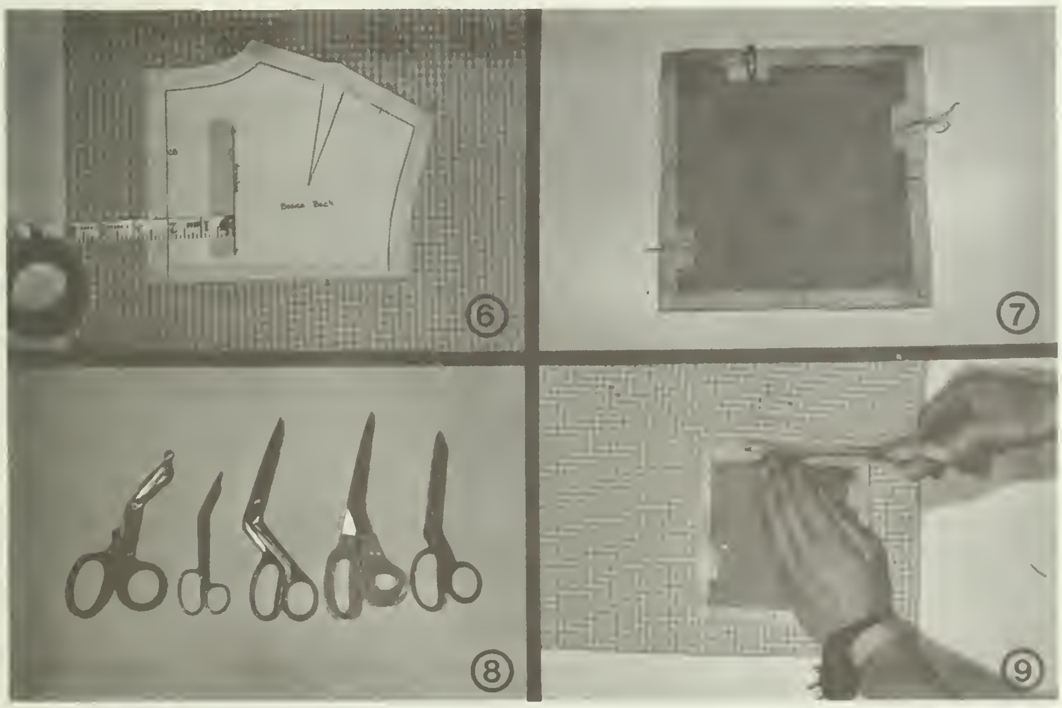

Figure 6. Tactually measuring grainline.

Figure 7. Notching methods evaluated and tactile means of transferring notches to fabric.

Figure 8. Five shears evaluated: utility scissors, bandage scissors, bent-handled dressmaker shears, Fiskars, and regular dressmaker shears.

Figure 9. Preferred cutting method using Fiskar shears.

tained better cutting results with pins placed perpendicular to the edge rather than parallel. When pins were placed diagonally in the corners, students were less likely to prick themselves as they reached a corner (Figure 7).

Five different shears including regular dressmaker shears, Fiskars, bent-handled dressmaker shears, bandage scissors, and utility scissors were evaluated (Figure 8). Bandage and utility scissors were included because they both have a round tip at the end of the blades so that students could use the tip as a tactile guide to align the blade along the pattern edge. These scissors were unsatisfactory because they created very uneven fabric edges due to their short blades. Best results were obtained with the Fiskars. To cut, students aligned the cutting edge of the lower blade, which has a flat surface, with the pattern edge and removed the fingers of the opposing hand just prior to closing the blade (Figure 9).

Machine Threading. Students were encouraged to feel the machine head as they were introduced to individual components and the threading sequence. All students mastered threading, although varying amounts of time were required by different individuals.

Special machine needles for the handicapped, which are slit to allow thread to pass directly into the needle's eye, were evaluated. While students could easily thread these, they had difficulty determining whether the thread had come out of the eye. These needles were therefore determined to be unsatisfactory. With practice, students were able to thread regular machine needles using a wire needle threader, an item available as most notions counters. This device was inserted from back to front for a front threading needle; removing or lowering the presser foot made this procedure easier.

Machine Tension. A tactile demonstration was used to present the concept of tension. Cards with cording sewn to the top and bottom sides represented spool and bobbin thread (Figure 10). Cording positioned evenly on the top and bottom represented balanced tension; cording placed smoothly on the top and looped on the bottom illustrated tight upper thread tension; and, cording looped on the top and smooth on the bottom indicated loose upper thread tension. Unfortunately, this tactile demonstration did not present the concept of tension completely.

Adjusting the upper thread tension dial was not a problem. On some machines, a tactile marker such as a drop of glue could serve to indicate average tension. By learning which direction to turn the dial to a higher or lower number and that "low is loose" and "high is tight", students could adjust the tension dial.

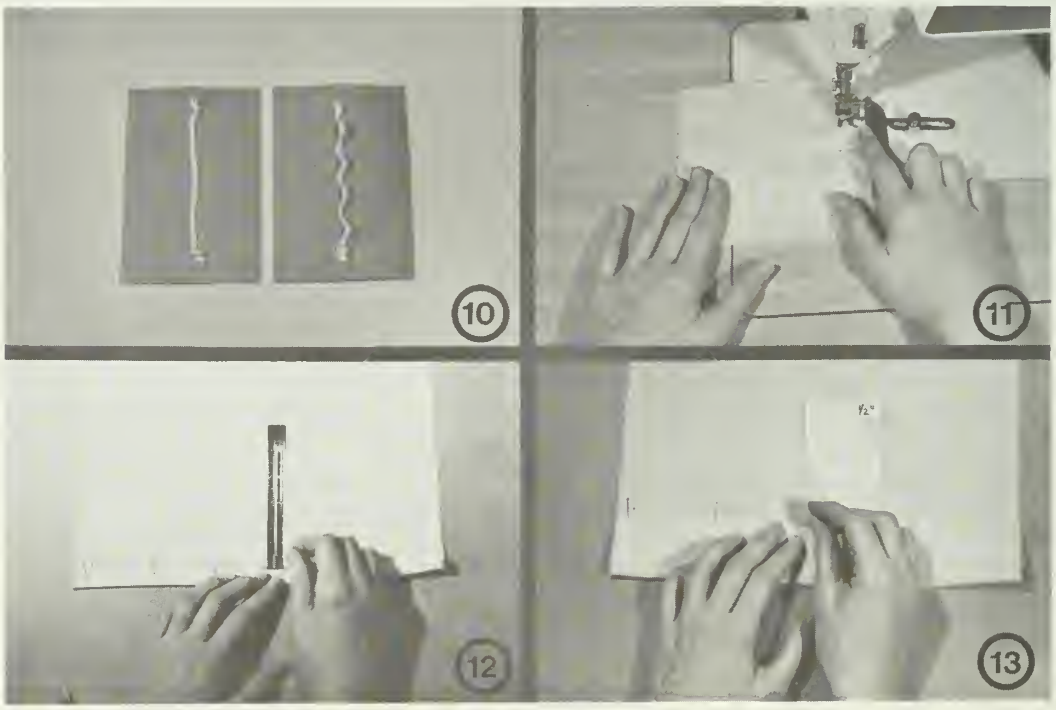

Figure 10. Tactile cards used to demonstrate tension.

Figure 11. Stitching plain seams with the use of a seam guide.

Figure 12. Inserting measuring device into fabric fold to measure hem.

Figure 13. Pinning into the ironing board pad close to the hem edge to temporarily hold the fabric for pressing.

Machine Stitching. Metal seam guides, screwed into the machine bed, adequately marked seam allowances. Students were able to position the seam guide using either the grooves on the throat plate or by measuring the distance from the needle to the seam guide with a notched metal seam gauge.

Stitching plain seams presented no problems as student could position the raw edges of the fabric along the edge of the seam guide. They positioned the fore finger of the right hand next to the seam guide to produce an even seam allowance while the left hand gently guided the fabric (Figure 11). To assist with backstitching, masking tape was placed on the throat plate to the left of the presser foot in line with the needle. Students were instructed to place the edge of the fabric directly under the back of the presser foot. They then lowered the presser foot, backstitched until the fabric reached the edge of the masking tape, and proceeded to stitch forward. Thread ends were clipped upon removing the fabric from the machine. Students had no difficulty in clipping close to the stitching with a thread snip. The thread was placed between the blades, followed down to the fabric, and clipped.

In order to pivot corners accurately, masking tape was placed on the slide plate 5/8" in front of the machine needle. No problems were encountered when students were instructed to stitch until the fabric reached the edge of the tape and then pivot the fabric. On some machines, this procedure was facilitated because the edge of the throat plate was 5/8" from the machine needle.

Machine Stitched Hems. In preparation for machine hemming, the fabric folds were measured, pinned and pressed at the ironing board. Students rated a notched metal seam gauge and a cardboard gauge equally satisfactory for measuring fabric folds. Greatest accuracy was achieved by inserting the measuring device between the layers of fabric to measure hem depth (Figure 12). Pinning into the ironing board pad close to the hem edge temporarily held the folded fabric for pressing (Figures 13, 14). A separate set of regular head pins might be advisable for this task as the plastic melted on the large head pins if touched by a hot iron. Hems were successfully edgestitched with a masking tape guide positioned on the machine bed, using the same technique as used for machine stitched seams (Figure 15).

Conclusion. The basic concepts presented here represent a starting point. We began with simple projects to build confidence and proceeded to more difficult ones as the student advanced. Independence in sewing was achieved with only minor modifications to techniques or equipment. The concept of tension and the recognition of balanced tension need to be explored further to enable blind students to achieve maximum independence in sewing.

Teaching the blind to sew was a very rewarding experience. The students were eager to learn. As with any group of students, the blind students in this study had differences in anxiety levels, ability to grasp concepts, and manual dexterity. The key to success was careful task analysis, clear verbal directions, tactile demonstrations, and the recognition of individual differences and needs.

Additional Suggestions. The following basic organizational suggestions increase student independence in clothing construction:

- Remind students to organize their equipment and put things in the same place to avoid losing them. Encourage students to put single purpose items out of the way when not in use, using left to right organization, to avoid clutter.
- Have students ask salesclerks to mark the right side of fabric with a safety pin.
- Use the numbers on a clockface to give location directions.
- A magnet can be used to locate dropped pins if steel pins are used.

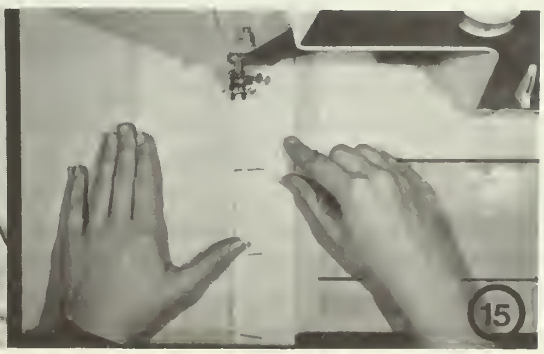

Figure 14. Pressing folded fabric along hem edge.

Figure 15. Edge-stitching hem edge using masking tape guide.

Photographs are by H. Woodson Stubbs

Inservice Education for Home Economics Teachers

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One of the most dynamic developments spanning the past two decades of educational progress is the concern for the education of handicapped students. Evidence of this concern was exhibited in 1968 when the Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 were written, mandating that all persons, regardless of age, should have access to vocational training or retraining. In 1978 the passage of Public Law 94-142, "The Education for All Handicapped Children Act", reaffirmed the recognition of an educational need and required that the need be met.

Although funds have been allocated for programs for disadvantaged and handicapped students, and enrollment of handicapped students in vocational home economics programs and regular classrooms has increased, very little has been done to prepare pre-service or in-service teachers for teaching handicapped students.[1] In recognition of this need, a workshop, Teaching Handicapped Students Home Economics, was designed and implemented by the Department of Family Resources at West Virginia University.

The content of the workshop focused on (1) legislation related to the education of handicapped students, (2) characteristics and needs of these students, (3) analysis and adaptation of curricular materials to meet their needs, and (4) effective techniques of teaching handicapped students various subject matter areas of home economics. With the assistance of consultants in the areas of curriculum, reading, clothing, family life education, housing, equipment, occupational therapy, and special education, participants were encouraged to develop positive attitudes toward persons with physical disabilities and to utilize guidelines for successfully integrating handicapped students into regular home economics classrooms.

The workshop program utilized a problem solving approach. Simulations of persons with physical disabilities led workshoppers in these roles to generate creative alternative solutions and to discover firsthand the problems they face.

Blindfolded participants realized that they could make iced tea with relative ease as long as they carefully organized their equipment and ingredients. Those who temporarily lost the use of one hand discovered that an aluminum nail protruding from a cutting board conveniently held an apple in place for peeling. Others, simulating students with limited energy, recognized that a serving cart or basket for collecting supplies saved steps and time.

Some students faced more discouraging problems with more difficult solutions. Participants in wheelchairs found that getting water from many drinking fountains was nearly impossible and that most pay telephones prohibited even an emergency call. Students who simulated visual or hearing disorders in public were often ignored.

The information gained in the workshop and the participants' previous experiences in home economics classrooms provided a basis for analyzing, adapting, and designing effective curricular materials. Each participant developed a teaching unit utilizing the newly created materials.

The impact of the workshop did not end when the participants left the university and returned to their home communities and schools. Instead, participants continued to gather and share information through four follow-up projects.

In the initial follow-up project, participants were asked to identify resource agencies and personnel in their communities that contributed to the education and/or rehabilitation of persons with disabilities. Nearly one hundred agencies were located and reported by workshop participants. In addition to some of the more familiar agencies, some unique service providers included state awareness agencies, a county human problems center, an early intervention center, an adolescent parents' program, and the Human Growth Foundation.

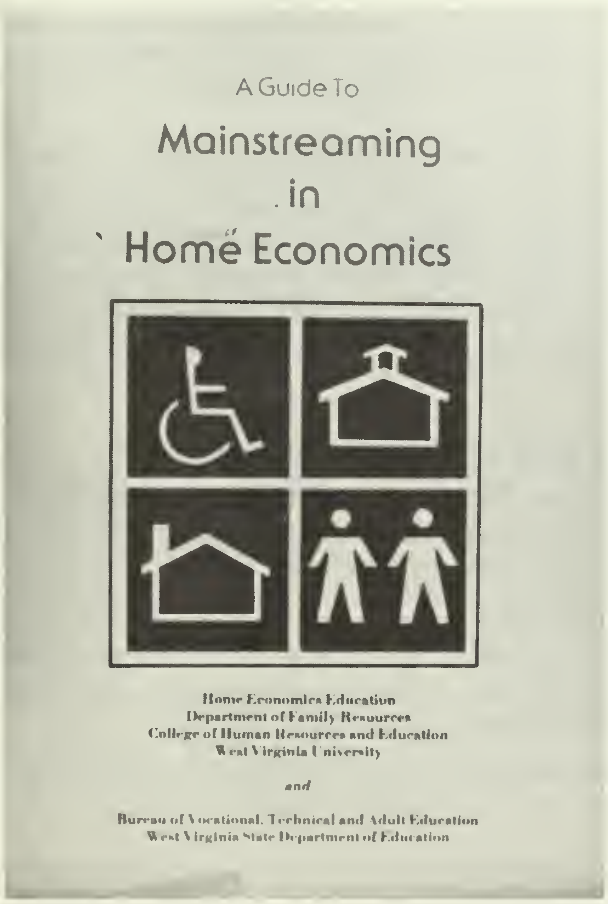
An assessment of structural barriers and safety hazards in local schools and communities comprised a second follow-up project. Participants reported a wide range of situations, from schools that were nearly barrier-free to schools that could not be entered by wheelchair users because of flights of stairs at each entrance. Most reported that some attempts were being made to eliminate barriers, but work had not yet been completed.

[1]Rupert N. Evans, "The Shortage of Vocational Teachers" in *Vocational and Occupational Education: Hearings before the Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary and Vocational Education of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Ninety-fourth Congress*, First Session HR 19 and Related Bills, Vol. 2 (Washington, D.C.; U.S. government Printing Office, 1974).

The third follow-up assignment was to trace mainstreaming efforts, philosophy, and attitudes in the local school communities. Results again varied with most participants reporting that mainstreaming efforts were slow and that many teachers were concerned about their own capabilities of teaching handicapped students.

The final and most challenging follow-up project was one that participants designed for themselves. Many participants developed teaching materials to be used with handicapped students in their classes. One student planned and implemented a community awareness project about barrier-free environments, and another coordinated a county-wide in-service program for home economics teachers to facilitate the involvement of handicapped students in their classrooms. One student's project involved a study of clothing to meet the special needs of students with physical disabilities. Others created pamphlets describing steps to barrier-free environments.

Approximately thirty-five teachers benefited directly from the workshop. Realizing that other in-service personnel could benefit indirectly from the materials generated in the workshop and the information gathered through follow-up projects, a handbook was compiled and distributed to all home economics teachers in West Virginia. "A Guide to Mainstreaming in Home Economics"* includes guidelines for working with handicapped students, characteristics of specific handicapping conditions, possible problems encountered in the classroom, teaching and learning strategies for minimizing the handicaps, a glossary of terms, selected classroom resources, and selected resource agencies.



*Available from: West Virginia Vocational Curriculum Laboratory, Cedar Lakes Conference Center, Ripley, WV 25271; (304) 372-8673; price $1.00.

The Special Educator as a Resource Person

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The child with special needs is now being given the opportunity to participate in the regular curriculum of the school system. No more important subject matter area exists for these children than the field of home economics, a field which teaches a set of skills this population needs to acquire if successful independent living is to be attained. It is appropriate for the home economics teacher to view the special educator as an academic and behavioral resources person whose primary goal is to assist subject matter teachers in designing successful learning experiences for the special child. This is accomplished by forming workable, cooperative relationships between home economics teachers and special education support personnel. With this arrangement these learners will have access to the system of vital information needed for independent living.

Functions of the Special Educator

The special educator can function as a resource person in a variety of ways. Some examples are:

1. Suggesting curricular adjustments which may be necessary for children with special needs.
2. Designing alternatives to the normal channels of disseminating information; e.g., if a child has a difficult time processing information visually, s/he could have the instructions presented in a learning center by means of a cassette recording.

Special education resource teachers can operate within the regular classroom or from a resource room.[1] The resource room can offer a highly distractable child the opportunity to work on preprogrammed material before a lesson is to take place within the regular class.

Mainstreaming Special Children as a Regular School Function

History has taught us that whenever any social group has isolated a unit of "unlikes" into separate categories, a system of social skills indigenous to the main group is lost. This is essentially what happened to special education children when the self-contained class was first developed. Research has subsequently shown that approach to be inappropriate,[2] and mainstreaming or placing the special child so that s/he may interact within the other learning systems has been mandated by law (P.L 94-142).[3]

The Special Educator's Role in Mainstreaming

Before any child is considered for mainstreaming, the special educator should meet with the classroom teacher to share ideas and assessment information and to formulate a program for the special learner. There are several critical points to be considered during that interaction.

1. The severity of the learning or behavior problem should be weighed against the demands of the curriculum to be mastered. An evaluation of the student's strengths and weaknesses determine much of this information, while the requirements of the subject matter area are assessed in consultation with the classroom teacher.
2. Strategies that can facilitate learning within the regular classroom should be designed by the classroom teacher with assistance from the special educator.

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[1] D. Hammill, "The Resource Room Model in Special Education" *The Journal of Special Education*, 6, (1972): pp. 349-354.

[2] L. J. Dunn, "Special Education for the Mildly Retarded: Is Much of it Justifiable?" *Exceptional Children*, 34, (1964): pp. 261-265.

H. L. Sparks and L. S. Blackman, "What is Special About Education Revisited: The Mentally Retarded" *Exceptional Childrean*, 5, (1965): pp. 242-249.

R. J. Zito and J. I. Bardon, "Achievement Motivation Among Negro Adolescents in Regular and Special Education Programs" *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, 74, (1969): pp. 20-26.

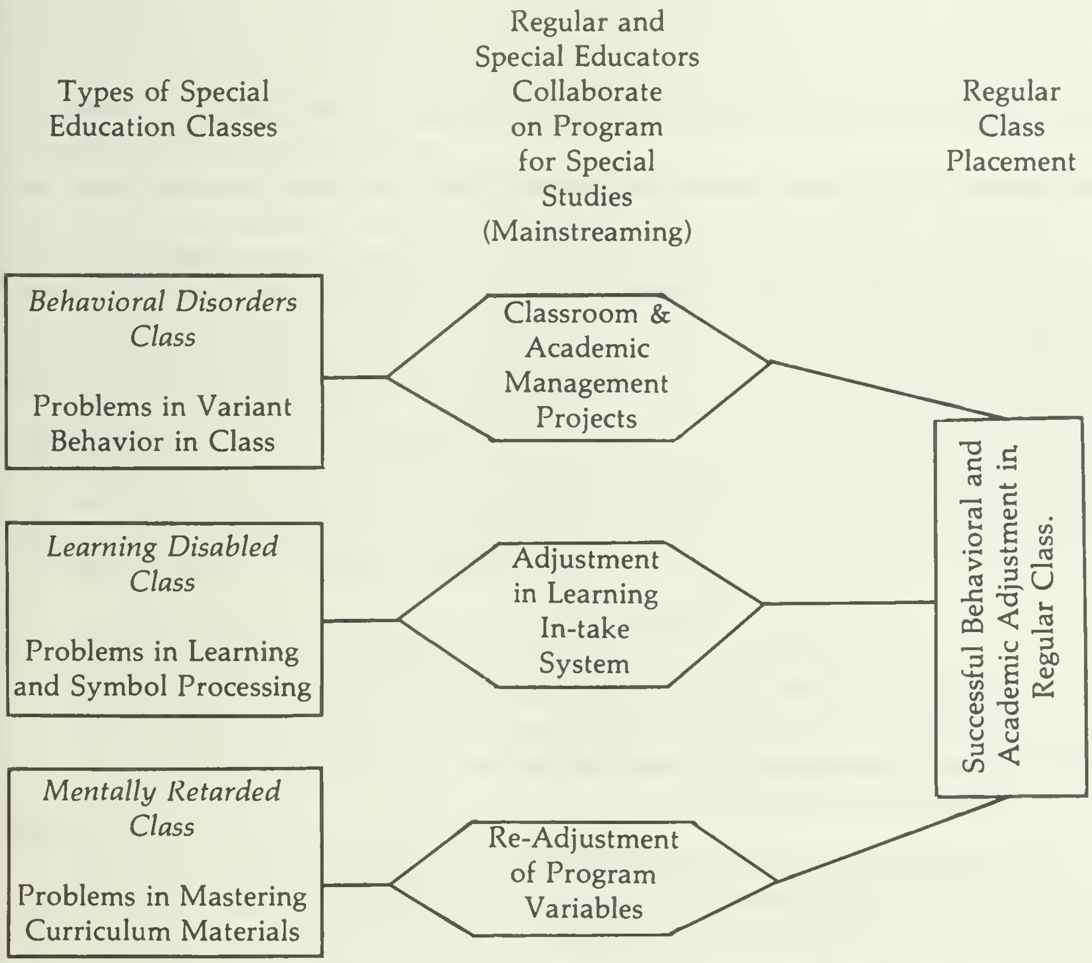
[3] J. Ballard, "Public Law 94-142 and Section 504—Understanding What They Are and Are Not" Governmental Relations Unit, The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia, 1977.

3. Back-up programs that can be implemented in resource-type settings to prepare the special learner to succeed in the regular setting should also be developed; e.g., a student that has difficulty with pencil and paper examinations can have tests administered orally in the resource room.

How Special Education Can Assist In Programming and Mainstreaming Special Students

Figure 1 shows three types of special education classrooms that serve special needs children. The classroom that serves "behavior-disordered" children assists the regular teacher primarily with problems in behavior. The "learning-disordered" classroom concentrates on problems in learning and curriculum while the mentally retarded classroom, depending on student abilities, usually needs modification in curricular structures.

Figure 1. Flowchart of three types of Special Education classrooms with cooperative projects mainstreamed classrooms.



* *

The most deadly of all possible sins is the mutilation of a child's spirit.

Erik Erikson

Expertise of The Special Educator

The special educator has knowledge relative to strengths and weaknesses in learning styles that will prove invaluable to the regular teacher in programming for the special child. This information, obtained through formal and functional assessment, provides additional information concerning:

(1) methods for programming material,

(2) spacing of tasks,

(3) time consideration,

(4) re-design of material, and

(5) behavior management projects.

The regular teacher presents students with material and a set of skills to be mastered. Special education students may have a problem in mastering these requirements because of faulty perceptual system, low intelligence, or behavior that gets in the way of learning. It is the function of the resource person to assist these students in developing learning styles, behavioral coping devices or program. With the cooperation of subject matter teachers, the resource room and the regular class can be combined to help the special child to be a functional learner in the school structure.

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The Voice

Would someone stop and love me now?
Would someone please, please care,
Would someone show me where to go,
Or maybe take me there?

Would someone kindly hold my hand
And talk to me awhile,
And let me tell them how I feel
And walk with me a mile?

Would someone walk and talk with me
Till fears I have are gone,
And teach me, help me, care for me
So I may walk alone?

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Evaluation in the Mainstreamed Classroom

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Hey, teacher, how come that dumb kid got a better grade than me?
How come I got a C and that kid got a B?
I can sew better than ________ . How come he got a better grade?

The question is, how come? How do teachers determine the grades they write on the report card? What is the basis for such grades? The answer to these questions must be dealt with from a philosophically sound position if teachers are to resolve one of the greatest challenges in the mainstreaming effort; that is, how to grade each student fairly within the mainstreamed classroom.

There are essentially two ways to determine grades. One method is to compare students. Students are ranked from best to poorest in terms of their performance on a given task. In this system, known as norm referenced evaluation, experts contend there must be so many A's, so many B's, and so on. The important thing to remember is that in the norm referenced system each student is compared with the other students in the class.

The second method of grading is to measure student growth based upon standards or criteria that have been specified by the teacher; that is, criterion referenced testing. In this system, each student is evaluated in terms of his/her achievement level before instruction begins and at its conclusion—that is, on growth. The grade is dependent upon progress toward pre-determined criteria. In this system everyone can be a winner, a failure, or mediocre. Each student is measured and evaluated independently of others in the class.

One of the most frustrating tasks of the teacher in a mainstreamed class is grading the less able in relation to the "regular" students. There is no easy way to resolve that frustration. Mainstreamed students in most cases cannot be fairly compared to the "regular" students. There are exceptions to this; e.g., the student with at least average intelligence who is confined to a wheelchair can be fairly compared to the "regular" students in classes such as reading, math, social studies and those home economics classes not requiring mobility. But for the most part, mainstreamed students who have mental deficiencies and poor motor control cannot be fairly compared to "regular" students in home economics.

The solution is to eliminate comparisons. No longer can we justify a grading system that ranks students based on their achievement in relation to others. However, teachers can grade fairly by using the second system, wherein students are graded on their progress toward accomplishment of a pre-determined goal. The five basic steps in this process are:

1) determining the objectives to be achieved,
2) determining entry level behaviors by pre-test or other means,
3) monitoring and recording progress toward achievement of objectives,
4) measuring achievement of objectives, and
5) translating progress toward and achievement of objectives into the school's marking system.

Determine the Objectives to be Achieved

While many educators lament the use of behavioral objectives, they are useful in determining goals for students. If teachers can designate specifically what they hope students will achieve, they have a basis for their lesson plans, a standard against which to measure progress, and a rationale for the grade. Perhaps too much emphasis has been placed on stating objectives rather than implementing them. Whatever the case, if teachers are to end up with fair grades they must set standards as a basis for grading. It is helpful to set broad goals, or terminal objectives, then break them down into specific sequenced tasks or enabling objectives. (See Figure 1.)

[1] For further discussion on terminal and enabling objectives see the article on Task Analysis on page 57.

Figure 1. Terminal and Enabling Objectives

Terminal objective: The student will be able to thread the sewing machine.

Enabling objectives:

1. Given a diagram, the student will identify the parts of the sewing machine.
2. Given a diagram, the student will name the parts of the sewing machine.
3. Given the numbered diagram and thread, the student will thread the spool thread.
4. Given a threaded bobbin, the student will insert the bobbin and catch the thread with the needle.
5. Given an empty bobbin, the student will wind the bobbin with thread.
6. Given an empty bobbin and spool, student will thread the machine.
7. Given a diagram, student can label parts and number steps in threading.

By using this system the teacher can plan lessons that will help each student achieve the specific objectives, and hence the terminal objective.

Determine Entry Level Behavior

A crucial aspect of measuring growth is determining where students are when they begin receiving instruction. Teachers should pretest students to measure their entering behavior but for the mainstreamed class this may take on a new dimension. A functional assessment of students who are handicapped may also be needed. Functional assessment is most important in the home economics classroom where a variety of abilities are needed to succeed in the diverse programs offered. In order to succeed in home economics, students must have functional capabilities in vision, hearing, speech, reading and comprehension, cognitive abilities, mobility, and holding, grasping and manipulation. It would be helpful for the teacher to know each handicapped student's level of functional ability in each of these areas. Effective lessons could then be planned and appropriate adaptations made which in turn would enable the teacher to grade fairly. Teachers may contact resource persons within the school for this type of information, e.g., guidance counselors or special education teachers, or they may perform a functional assessment themselves.

Use of a simplified check-list (See Figure 2) can assist the teacher greatly in assessing a student's functional level. The checklist can be used when the student is assigned a simple task such as preparing Jello while the teacher observes, and within a short time a functional assessment has been made that can be useful in planning home economics lessons. This task requires functional abilities in all seven of the checklist categories if the teacher introduces it to the student and provides some brief verbal instructions. Note, this activity is meant to provide information that will assist the teacher in making necessary adaptations designed to aid students in reaching the specified goals. This procedure is one aspect of determining where the student is when instruction begins.

Figure 2. Determining Functional Abilities

1. Vision

   ______ Total vision
   ______ Partial vision
   ______ Blind

2. Hearing

   ______ Total hearing
   ______ Hearing with use of aid
   ______ Deaf

3. Speech

   ______ Total speech
   ______ Speech impairment
   ______ Little or no speech

4. Reading/Comprehension

   ______ Reading at current grade level
   ______ Reading 3 years below grade level
   ______ Non-reader
   ______ Understands written directions

5. Cognitive abilities
   ______ Understands oral directions
   ______ Can sequence events appropriately
   ______ Makes appropriate decisions

6. Mobility
   ______ Total mobility
   ______ Mobile with use of wheelchair or crutches
   ______ Can transfer self from wheelchair to working site
   ______ Immobile

7. Holding, grasping, manipulation
   ______ Has both fine and gross motor control
   ______ Can hold, grasp, manipulate with assistance
   ______ Has limited fine motor control
   ______ Cannot hold, grasp, nor manipulate

Monitor and Record Progress

Monitoring and recording progress is also a vital part of the evaluation program. Teachers must keep accurate records to account for the grades they give. This is particularly important when handicapped students are in the class. Often students with special needs may progress for several days, then regress back to their entering behavior. A simplified recording device (see Figure 3) is helpful for teachers to use to keep a daily record of behaviors. Each day the teacher will record, in the square under the appropriate objective number, the level of student achievement attained using the scale provided. When records such as these have been kept a teacher can use them as the basis for a grade when the grading period arrives.

Figure 3. Recording Device

Terminal Objective: Thread the sewing machine.

Enabling Objectives:
1. Identify parts of the machine.
2. Name parts of the machine.
3. Thread spool thread.
4. Wind bobbin with thread.
5. Insert bobbin and catch thread with needle.
6. Thread machine.
7. On diagram label parts and number steps in threading.

Date: ____________________

Students' Names	Objectives By Number 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comments

Scale:
1. cannot do task
2. can do with a great deal of assistance
3. can do with some assistance
4. can do independently

Measure Achievement

At the grading period student progress must be determined. It is important that students are measured in terms of the goals specified. For example, if the stated goal is to thread the sewing machine, the performance of that task must be measured rather than the students' knowledge of the technological evolution of the sewing machine. By carefully stating the terminal objectives, teachers are more likely to use valid techniques in measuring student growth.

In the mainstreamed classroom, it is important that tests are adapted when necessary to accommodate the student with special needs. For example, a test can be given orally to the visually impaired student or certain adaptations can be made to enable the student with poor coordination to thread the sewing machine.

Growth is the difference between what was and what is. The amount of progress made can be ascertained by comparing the pre-measurement with the post-measurement.

Translating Progress and Achievement into School's Marking System

While most school systems have a uniform marking system (e.g., 90 to 100 = A), the teacher does have a great deal of control over the evaluation of students. The teacher determines the goals to be reached, the evaluation devices used, and how these devices are interpreted. However, it is often at the point of recording grades on the permanent records that teachers become frustrated over grading students in a mainstreamed class. It is at this point that teachers say, "How can I give this student an A and this one a C? Maybe I should give each of them a B." These frustrations are reduced when a teacher uses the criterion-referenced evaluation system, measuring and marking each student based on achievement of stated objectives rather than in comparision to the performance of other students. This system takes into account a student's abilities and limitations. Achievement standards for objectives are set for each student based upon individual needs, and progress is measured in terms of the student's unique requirements and goals. When this system is used, every student in the mainstreamed classroom can be evaluated and graded fairly. This measurement can then be transferred into a meaningful grade in light of the school's marking system.

Implicit in this process is the understanding that the *criteria* governing the assignment of the grade will also be *stated on the permanent record.*

Summary

Evaluation is a vital part of the teaching-learning process. If teachers are to evaluate the mainstreamed students fairly, they must be graded in terms of their growth rather than how their performance compares to that of non-handicapped students. The delivery of this type of evaluation system may result in severe labor pains; however, it can give birth to a new era in the evaluation of mainstreamed students. These labor pains can be eased through the use of the previously suggested steps, i.e., (1) determining the terminal objectives to be achieved by the student and subsequent enabling objectives, (2) determining where the student is when s/he begins the class through pretesting and functional assessment, (3) monitoring and recording progress or regression, (4) measuring achievement accurately, and (5) transferring the evaluation into a meaningful grade.

Teaching Aids

The booklets listed below may be useful in mainstreamed classes especially because of one or more of the following:

(1) They are written on an elementary reading level but aimed toward youth or adult interest levels.
(2) They allow for self pacing and individualized instruction.
(3) They permit the student to secure his/her own feedback.
(4) They use concrete examples to teach abstract principles.
(5) They can be used for peer tutoring or for small groups.

Title ($1.00 each from *Illinois Teacher* Office) include:

B1.	**Hamburger and You.**
B2.	**Calories and You.**
B3.	**How to Use the Comparison Cards.**
B4.	**Let Protein Work for You.**
B5.	**Shopping for Protein—Calorie-wise and $-wise.**
B6.	**A Pattern for a Balanced Diet.**
B7&B8.	**Child Care in a Day Care Home.**
B9.	**You and Communications.**
B10-B11.	**Exploring Our Attitudes Toward Aging.**
B12.	**Apartments . . ? the dollars and sense of it.**
B13.	**How Insurance Works.**

Lesson Planning to Meet Unique Needs of Students in a Mainstreamed Class

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The home economics teacher should be well prepared to teach a class with a range of ability levels. While the idea of mainstreaming students into a regular classroom causes some teachers to feel inadequate in classroom planning, the teacher has considerable resources and strategies for helping all students, regardless of ability level. (See article on Classroom Management, p.54.)

One classroom organizational structure the home economics teacher can use is to divide a class of students into groups by ability level. This arrangement permits the average student a chance to cover more content and to work toward higher levels of learning. It also gives other students such as the Educationally Disadvantaged (ED) and/or the Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) an opportunity for more teacher-student contact, extra time to cover the content, and a chance for repetition and drill if needed. The initial steps for adapting a mainstreamed class to meet the unique needs of students include:

STEP 1: Arrange the students into groups that more closely resemble one another in ability.

STEP 2: Develop a profile that outlines the learning needs for each group.

STEP 3: Build a teaching/learning strategy to meet the needs of each group.

STEP 4: Outline a lesson plan that coordinates strategies that will be conducted in the classroom simultaneously.

Figure 1 provides a sample profile of the characteristics of students in a mainstreamed class, while Figure 2 suggests teaching strategies for working with different ability level students in one class.

Figure 1. Student Profiles for a Sample Mainstreamed Class

Educationally Disadvantaged	Average	Educable Mentally Retarded
• short attention span • limited retention • writing difficulty	• learns at an uneven pace • range of abilities • range of learning styles • incidental learning carries over	• may be 1-2 years older than peers • very short attention span • very limited retention • poor writing skills • faulty concept formulation • difficulty in generalizing • difficulty understanding cause/effect relationships

Figure 2. Teaching Strategies

Educationally Disadvantaged	Average	Educable Mentally Retarded
1) provide for success →	(1) →	(1)
2) reinforce often →	(2) →	(2)
3) provide clear simple directions →	(3) →	(3)
4) use verbal, visual examples	(4) use some verbal, visual examples	(4) use many verbal, visual examples
5) foster caring relationship →	(5) →	(5)
6) build friendship through peer tutor	(6) apply the classroom lesson to other examples outside the class	(6) use step-by-step prompting as needed
	(7) practice the learning through peer teaching	

Some strategies are applicable for learners regardless of ability level, e.g., reinforcement and encouragement, simple clear directions, use of examples, and fostering a caring relationship. Sometimes the teacher only needs to decrease the degree of content or skill difficulty and/or increase the number of examples or reinforcers to aid the low-ability learner. Modifications within the classroom include restructuring of the environment and/or grouping by ability level. Other choices are available to the teacher such as altering the curriculum content. A variety of activities should be provided. Games, puzzles, role playing, speakers, and music may aid learners of any ability level and can enhance motivation in the classroom.

Figure 3, A Sample Lesson Plan, illustrates how instruction may be planned to meet the unique needs of students in a mainstreamed class. Note for example that the teacher completes some activities with the entire class as a group. Introducing the key concept and viewing the filmstrip are good examples of total group activities. Sometimes two groups work together with the teacher, while the third group goes ahead on their own to complete an activity such as measuring their personal space bubble. The teacher can try peer teaching with the average group assuming leadership and direction with the educationally disadvantaged. This frees the teacher to drill and repeat the lesson with the EMR group, emphasizing key words. Once the additional drill is concluded the EMR students complete the same activity already finished by the rest of the class under the direction of a teacher assistant. The teacher oversees the collage project with the ED and average groups, then returns to the EMR's to repeat the key terms with flash cards. Each student writes one sentence on "what personal space means to me" on the graffiti sheet posted on the wall. The completed posters are reviewed by the EMR students, with blue ribbons and gold seals given to recognize all who participated and completed the work.

Figure 3. A Sample Lesson Plan Outline

Topic: Personal Space[1]

Sub-topics: Use of space
Perception of space

Class Time: 2 fifty-five minute sessions

Equipment: Filmstrip projector

Materials: work sheet
tape measures
glass ball
colored pencils
glue, tag board
magazines for clipping
flash cards

Audio-Visuals:
1. "Proxemics" filmstrip
2. Awareness Activity 1: "Your Space Around You"

General Objective: 1.0 Relate the need for space with personal preference
- 1.1 Define personal space
- 1.2 Outline personal space territory
- 1.3 Relate personal space needs to cultural practices

<table>
<tr><th>Average</th><th>Educationally Disadvantaged</th><th>Educable Mentally Retarded</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Introduction using glass ball to visualize space bubble. View Filmstrip "Proxemics". Follow-up questions and answers on key ideas.</td></tr>
<tr><td>In pairs complete Awareness Activity 1 measuring the personal space bubble.</td><td>Complete work sheet as follow-up to filmstrip with teacher and ED group.</td><td>Complete work sheet as follow-up to filmstrip with teacher and EMR group.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Peer tutoring with the average group assuming the teacher role.
ED group is assisted in completing Awareness Activity 1, working in pairs with average students.</td><td>View filmstrip "Proxemics" again, highlighting items from worksheet with teacher emphasizing key words by drill.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Clip magazines and complete collage that illustrates the theme "appealing and unappealing space."</td><td>Complete Awareness Activity 1 with teacher assistant
Teacher reviews key terms with flash cards.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Each student writes one-sentence statement on "what personal space means to me" on grafitti sheet posted on wall.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Display posters. EMR student committee grades collages. Designate 3 that best illustrate expression of "Appealing and Unappealing Space."</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Teacher reviews key terms with flash cards and summarizes personal space concept.</td></tr>
</table>

[1] "Your Space and Mine," Educational Relations Department, J. C. Penney Company, Inc., New York.

References

1. Birch, Jack W., "Mainstreaming that Works" *Journal of Teacher Education*, 29, no. 6 (1978): pp. 18-21.
2. Kolstoe, Oliver P., *Teaching Educable Mentally Retarded Children* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970).

Teaching Homemaking Skills to Educable Mentally Retarded Students

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Low functioning Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) persons are capable of being prepared as homemakers. However, they are in a unique situation as homemakers for they are not under the constant supervision they would be in most on-the-job training programs or employment situations. They must learn to make many of their own decisions and care for their families as well as themselves.

Characteristics of EMR's. Home economics can help EMR's to become effective homemakers. To do this, teachers must understand their characteristics. EMR's have IQ's of 50-75. They can develop academic skills up to the sixth grade level.[1] They have a high need for attention, praise, and encouragement. Other charactertistics of EMR's include anxiety, jealousy, over-dependency, poor self-evaluation, hostility, hyperactivity, and failure to follow orders.[2] EMR's also possess a high expectation of failure. This can be attributed to lifetimes spent confronting tasks which they are not equipped to handle.

EMR's neither learn as quickly nor achieve as much academically as the average person does. In addition, they are very inept at the transfer of knowledge. They also possess short-term memories. Overlearning or rote learning is required.[3] However, once ideas or tasks are thoroughly learned, EMR's may retain them as well as average students.

Effective Teaching Techniques. To provide effective learning experiences, teachers need to devise teaching techniques based on the characteristics of EMR's. Because EMR's have short attention spans, lessons should be short and concise. When work is assigned, the amount should be limited. Before beginning a learning experience, EMR's need to review the previous information and materials on which it is based. They learn better by demonstration than by having information told to them. Lessons should be planned so that repetition of tasks is possible. In presenting information or giving directions to EMR's, it is necessary to use as few words as possible and only those that are familiar to them. Specific techniques for the areas of child care, nutrition, and home management are provided below.

Child Care Techniques. One important task, which homemakers must perform in the area of child care, is the selection of baby food and formula. To help EMR homemakers carry out this task, we remove the labels from the foods and formulas that their physicians recommend, color code each according to the category of food (meat, vegetables, fruit, etc.), and make a chart showing the number of foods from each category to purchase weekly. By referring to it, the homemaker can select the needed number of labels from each category and match them to the labels on new containers at the grocery store.

EMR mothers must also schedule their baby's feedings. To help them do this, we draw clocks which show the time of each feeding. Under each clock we color bars to show which category of food the baby needs. The homemaker can match the time on their clocks with the time on real clocks. By matching the colored bars to the coded labels, they know which foods to use at each feeding. We make sure that EMR homemakers know they can feed their children off schedule in emergencies or when they are especially hungry.

Food and Nutrition Techniques. Like all homemakers, EMR homemakers need to plan nutritious meals and shop for food. To help them with meal planning, we draw a chart of the basic four food groups and put pictures of the most common foods in each category in the appropriate places on the chart. We print the name of each food under its picture, and in each category, we list the number of servings needed daily. Referring to the chart, the homemaker can select the foods to serve each day. A grocery list is devised by copying the names of the desired foods from the chart and, at the grocery store, the homemaker can match the names of her/his lists to the names on labels.

Continued on bottom of next page

[1] Lloyd M. Dunn, ed. *Exceptional Children in the Schools* (New York: Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1968) p. 56-7.

[2] ___________ *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, 1968 edition, "Mental Retardation" p. 240.

[3] Dunn, p. 84.

Developmental Disabilities In The Home Economics Classroom

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Developing an appropriate individualized education program (IEP) for severely physically and/or mentally impaired students requires that schools not only use existing programs maximally, but also that they strengthen those programs to meet a wide range of student educational needs. If one accepts the premise that, for most severely impaired students acquisition of appropriate daily living skills is a prerequisite to planning for a maximum level of independence and that schools have a responsibility for teaching those skills, then the search begins to determine which existing programs might effectively provide that education.

The move toward de-institutionalization, and educating severely impaired children in the community, will bring increased numbers of these students into the classroom. One has only to look at the definition of developmental disabilities, for example, to realize the potential educational challenge for home economics teachers.

An individual is developmentally disabled if:

> . . . the condition is a severe, chronic disability of a person which
> (a) is attributed to a physical or mental impairment or a combination of both of these,
> (b) is acquired before the age of 22,
> (c) is likely to continue indefinitely,
> (d) results in substantial functional limitations in three or more of these major areas of life activity: (1) self-care, (2) receptive and expressive language, (3) learning, (4) mobility, (5) self-direction, (6) capacity for independent living, (7) economic self-sufficiency; and
> (e) indicates that the disabled person needs a combination and sequence of special, interdisciplinary, or generic care, treatment, or other services which are of lifelong or extended duration and are individually planned and coordinated.[1]

The developmentally disabled student can have a wide range of handicapping conditions. Many will achieve only a minimal level of proficiency in skills ranging from personal care and feeding to more traditional home economics skills in areas such as food preparation, nutrition, and home management. The home economics teacher may be involved in three different roles: teacher, consultant, and team member.

[1] Public Law 95-602 Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Services, and Developmental Disability Amendments, 1968.

(continued from page 77)

To help EMR homemakers prepare food we make a "dictionary" of common cooking terminology defining whenever possible with illustrations. The homemaker can match the names of the ingredients in their recipes to the names on labels. If they are not familiar with the terms in the directions, they can refer to their "dictionaries."

Home Management. To help EMR homemakers care for their homes, we print each day of the week on a separate sheet of paper and place pictures of the household chores to be performed that day. All purpose cleaners simplify the task. If specialty cleaners are needed for certain tasks, we remove the labels from their containers and mount them on paper. Under each label, we place pictures of the surfaces on which the specialty cleaner should be used.

To help EMR homemakers manage their money, we assist them in developing a monthly budget by designating envelopes for each category in the budget (rent, utilities, etc.) and printing on the front of each envelope the category and the amount allotted to it. EMR's can place the correct amount of money in the envelopes and pay their bills from them.

Such techniques, designed in light of their characteristics, help EMR students to become effective homemakers.

The Teacher Role. Teaching the developmentally disabled student in the regular classroom setting will require adapting not only facilities and equipment but teaching techniques. It will require a reappraisal of what constitutes satisfactory performance in a skill area. For example, some students may be unable to read and follow recipes and should be taught simpler food preparation that still provides for sound nutrition. Some students may have the mental capacity but lack the physical capacity to attain certain skills. Still others may develop only minimal skills. Although a number of developmentally disabled students may reach full independence, many more will function in semi-independent or closely supervised settings in alternate living arrangements such as group homes.

Rehabilitation facilities and similar programs have long provided training in a wide range of daily living skills. These programs have developed special materials and strategies for teaching daily living activities. Also, special programs have been developed relating to homemaking skills, such as Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor training. Many of these resources draw from home economics and now have much to contribute to a home economics curriculum that is designed to meet the needs of handicapped students.

Developing these types of home economics curricula poses a number of considerations. For example, to what extent should home economics be confined to teaching higher level independent living skills, as opposed to more basic skills such as self-care? There will undoubtedly be considerable variation across the programs; however, regardless of the range of curricula, the role of home economics for those students it does serve will be to assist them in maximizing their ability to function. The goal is to permit these individuals to live in the least restrictive environment consistent with their capabilities.

The Consultant Role. One major issue that may well surface is the role of the home economics teacher in dealing with the more severely impaired student and the extent to which that role overlaps or interfaces with special education classrooms. Many developmentally disabled students may be in a self-contained classroom. Since the goal is to maximize functioning, these students should be mainstreamed when and if it is appropriate. Since the home economics teacher will know which students can be served in a particular home economics classroom, that teacher should work closely with the special education teacher to assure that this transition is made when individual students are ready. For these students the home economics teacher can act as a consultant to the special education teacher in developing "readiness" skills. For those students for whom such a transition is not appropriate, the home economics teacher can assist the special education teacher by providing consultation on those basic skills being taught in the classroom.

The Team Member Role. Ideally, one can envision the home economics teacher functioning as a team member, concerned with developing an IEP that meets the broadest range of student educational needs. Based on an assessment of the level of functioning, the team could construct an IEP in which the home economics teacher's activities as either a classroom teacher or as a consultant complement teaching activities in other areas, and vice versa. Thus, it is possible to view the home economics teacher as a homemaker rehabilitation professional concerned with providing a wide variety of services to school-age handicapped individuals. These activities, of course, have implications for home economics teacher education programs.

The home economics teacher could well become one of the school's most valuable assets in providing preparation in daily living skills for the developmentally disabled. The extent to which the profession assumes that responsibility, and the extent to which other educators and administrators make use of this resource will, no doubt, result in divergent positions within the profession.

Those of us outside home economics look to the profession for assistance in educating severely impaired students for maximum independence. Those of you in home economics will determine the appropriate depth of that participation.

The job of the teacher is to arrange victories for his students.

Quintilian

Home Economics for Incarcerated Youth

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The phone rings. A male voice says, "I just called to tell you I'm going straight. I haven't been in trouble with the law for over a year now." The feeling of joy tells the home economics teacher it was all worthwhile. Teaching what some people consider the little things in life has paid off.

Working with incarcerated youth at the West Virginia Industrial School for Boys is very rewarding. The students' physical appearance is similar to that of students in any other school. The sparkle in the eyes and the mischievous grin may steal your heart, but the background of the student body is different from most.

Characteristics. The boys range in age from 11 to 18 years. The average age at the time of arrival is 15½ years. Although the average grade level is nine at the time of admission to the Industrial School, the diagnostic programs reveal that most of the boys achieve below this level. For example, 75% of the youth are reading below the 8th grade level; 85% have math skills below the 8th grade level; and 79% have language skills below the 8th grade level. The average achievement level at the time of commitment is 6.6 grade for reading and math skills, and 6.3 grade level for language skills.

The background of the students includes deprived family situations. The students have a poor sense of what it takes to survive or succeed. While the younger boys may be mischievous and still impressionable, some of the older boys are repeat offenders who have become hardened. Thus, it is more difficult to change their attitudes and behaviors.

Incarcerated youth have some very special needs. They need someone to take the time just to talk with them. They need love and kindness. The knowledge they need deals with basic everyday living skills. They also need coping skills to deal with crisis situations. They need to learn to slow down and think rather than reacting emotionally to each situation.

Home Economics Program. Home economics is helping Industrial School inmates to meet their needs through the life skills class. It doesn't take long for the teacher to learn not to ask students about why they are there. That is the past. It is much more effective to deal with the present. Many students blame their problems on their parents' divorce and family situations, so an understanding of personal relationships is a vital need which the life skills program is addressing. Helping the boys feel socially acceptable with all people, not just with other delinquents, is a major contribution of the home economics program.

Home economics helps students learn basic skills in several areas, including food preparation and child development. The students enjoy tasting and will try anything since they do not seem to have food prejudices. Experience indicates they really enjoy being with little children, especially babies. Holding and touching the babies is very important to them.

Each boy spends nearly two hours in home economics class each day for approximately 18 weeks. Units of instruction include consumer education, family life, clothing, food, housing, child care and development, and careers. Each of these units deals with concepts that are meaningful to the students. For example, the family life unit includes getting along with others, choosing a partner, venereal disease, marriage, deciding on being a parent, and crises within a family, such as family disputes, money problems, divorce, death, jail sentences, drugs, and alcohol. Individual education plans are written and implemented for each boy so the units vary to meet the students' specific needs.

Development of the Program. This program was begun in the fall of 1977 in direct response to the 1976 vocational legislation pertaining to consumer and homemaking. From its meager beginnings in a run-down classroom, many improvements have been made. Because of the success of the consumer and homemaking life skills program, the West Virginia Department of Corrections provided a substantial amount of money to renovate and equip the facility.

This program is the result of the cooperative efforts of the Bureau of Vocational, Technical, and Adult Education, Taylor County Board of Education, West Virginia Department of Corrections, and the West Virginia Industrial School for Boys. Beverly Workman was the first teacher in the program and developed the life skills classes.

Results of the Program. The life skills program has proven worthwhile. It has affected behavior. It has had an impact on the lives of these incarcerated boys. While statistics are not available to prove these statements, several incidents provide evidence. For example, one boy had a tattoo on his arm that said "Born to Raise Hell and Collect Food Stamps." This tattoo and the attitude it represented was a real concern to the teacher. As the days in class slipped by, this became a concern of the student also. After a brief trip home, the boy returned to the institution with his tattoo removed. Those who know the pain of removing a tattoo concede that the life skills program must have meant something special to that young man.

To date, three hundred and seventy-seven students have participated in the life skills program. According to Felix Veltri, Education Superintendent at West Virginia Industrial School for Boys, "The Life Skills program provides our residents with day-to-day living skills and helps them discover values that will assist them with the interpersonal relationships needed to function successfully in society."

The life skills studies have helped troubled youth learn basic knowledge and skills in nutrition and food preparation.

Incarcerated youth have special needs. Mary Kay Durst, home economics teacher, gives individual attention to an inmate.

Adult Roles & Functions Curriculum for Disadvantaged and Handicapped Students

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ADULT ROLES & FUNCTIONS,[1] a new home economics course developed for West Virginia high school juniors and seniors, has the potential to help disadvantaged and handicapped students prepare for adulthood. Adult roles, responsibilities, and functions, valuing, goal setting, communication, and lifestyles unify the seven content areas of the course which includes family relations, home management, housing, parenting, nutrition, consumer education, and careers. These are areas of learning appropriate to all students, and special needs students are no exception.

Course experiences designed to help students build a positive self-concept are particularly valuable to disadvantaged and handicapped students. Even college-bound students relate to one of the early course activities, an oral reading of Simon's story, "I am Lovable and Capable" (IALAC).[2] As a follow-up to the story, students may wear "IALAC" signs during a school day, tearing off a piece of the sign each time someone "puts them down" and taping a piece back when they receive a compliment or good word. The idea, of course, is to help students become less dependent on other people in determining their own self-worth. Students also keep a success record in which they record their accomplishments, big or small.

In developing this course, teachers included activities to motivate both rural and urban disadvantaged students. Some of the favorite activities appeal to a wide range of students in a variety of settings. More work is needed in making adaptations for students with some types of handicaps, although most teachers make needed modifications as a matter of course. Most schools in the state mainstream handicapped students, but the course is also taught at the West Virginia School for the Blind. Explorations of plans for reaching a higher precentage of disadvantaged and handicapped students are now underway. Possible ways to attract more of these students include:

1. Helping guidance counselors understand the importance of including disadvantaged and handicapped students in the course.
2. Identifying aspects of the course that might be taught earlier to help motivate special-needs students to stay in school. Many have dropped out of school by the junior year.
3. Experimenting by letting older students take the course even though they have not achieved junior or senior status.
4. Offering the course for out-of-school youth through adult and post-secondary programs.
5. Modifying the course so that it can be taught to adults who have not learned to function effectively in their adult roles.

ADULT ROLES & FUNCTIONS has been a catalyst for many changes in home economics education in West Virginia. Spin-offs from the course offer solutions to a variety of problems, such as breaking down some of the barriers among age groups. Resource people from all walks of life who have been involved in the course responded positively to the idea that they may be able to help younger persons avoid some of the mistakes they may have made. Students have listened intently and asked many questions. The opportunity to help younger people appears to enhance the self-esteem of disadvantaged and handicapped adults, and will perhaps assist them in their own growth. This same desire to help others is evident among some of the high school students who are eager to help younger students avoid some of the mistakes they have made.

As the title implies, the focus of this curriculum is to help students identify, clarify, and develop competencies pertaining to roles and functions of adults in their daily lives. For disadvantaged and handicapped students it can be a beginning step toward independent living.

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[1] *Adult Roles and Functions Curriculum* is available from the Vocational Curriculum Laboratory, Cedar Lakes Conference Center, Ripley, West Virginia 25271.

[2] Simon, Sidney B., *"I am Lovable and Capable"* (Niles, Illinois: Argus Publications, 1973).

The Blind Child in the Classroom

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Who helps the blind child in a regular classroom? How do parents approach this situation, and where does the classroom teacher begin? I would like to share some personal experiences with you since I am the mother of a visually impaired child.

When we were told our child was blind and would never see, our family began making some necessary compensation. We attempted to create an environment as nearly "normal" as possible. Since Michelle had to do all her learning by sound and touch rather than sight, we were sensitive to this and began to make adjustments. We contacted some parents of blind children, obtained many written resources from the library, attended a parents' institute held at the State School for the Blind, visited Western Pennsylvania School for the Blind, and obtained catalogues and resources for special equipment and supplies for the blind. We started this search for assistance immediately upon learning that our child could not see.

Other sources of contacts for information, ideas, and encouragement for parents and teachers we discovered are: residential schools and other existing educational programs, parent groups or individual parents of a visually impaired child, rehabilitation centers, special programs or institutes sponsored by the government, educational groups or service organizations, and printed information in pamphlets, journals and books.

From an early age Michelle has been encouraged to participate in every family and peer experience; she was expected to perform, and was disciplined when her behavior was not acceptable. Every child learns at a higher level when stimulated by his/her environment. It was never thought that Michelle could not attempt new experiences because she could not see. This was further reinforced by a brother just one year older. His philosophy has always been to let her try, and he has been of great stimulation to her. We applied such basic tenets of child development as encouragement to explore, opportunities to play, and a variety of playmates. These basic principles have the same end results with a visually impaired child as with a sighted child.

Nursery School. At two years of age, Michelle was a member of a small nursery school group of other 2-5 year olds. This experience allowed her to adjust to other children, other adults, and a different environment at an early age. A societal attitude that often prevails is that blind persons cannot perform certain functions because they do not see, and as a result, persons nearby will perform tasks for them. However, 2 and 3 year old children have little concern that a fellow playmate cannot see. So, she was treated like one of the group. This experience helped to develop some independence at an early age. We found that a major problem in mainstreaming a blind student is the protection and over-assistance given to this student. Well-meaning sighted students and instructors will try to do everything for the blind student with the obvious result of limiting his/her ability to perform.

Kindergarten Program. At age 5, Michelle was enrolled in a private kindergarten with 35 sighted children and participated in all the activities of the program with some minor adjustments. Objects were made with various textures, string or yarn outlines, corrugated paper, and basic Braille skills were introduced. Michelle is now completing the sixth grade in the same school with all sighted classmates. When we decided to mainstream Michelle rather than send her to a residential school for the blind, a conference was scheduled with the school administration and teachers. The other students were informed that Michelle could not see, but she was able to learn and would be a participant in the regular classroom. The teachers often reminded the other students not to do things for Michelle because she had to learn also.

Visually impaired students need to be reminded that they can perform, are expected to do their own assignments and activities, and that the world owes them nothing. We have always encouraged Michelle to contribute to a situation and to do her part, a circumstance in which independence is essential.

Special Assistance. Michelle's formal education took a giant step forward when her first grade teacher decided to learn Braille. I participated with this teacher in ordering and preparing materials for her first, second, and third grade curriculum. During the fourth grade, an itinerant teacher for visually impaired students was employed by the Board of Education of our county. This specialist spends 3-5 hours per week with Michelle in the school or classroom, grades the Brailled assignments, prepares Braille materials, and orders special equipment and supplies. A great problem in curriculum planning is finding a source for specific classroom materials and having enough lead time to obtain them when they are needed. All of Michelle's materials are Brailled or taped versions of classroom materials for sighted students. The American Printing House for the Blind, P.O. Box 6085, Louisville, Kentucky, 40206, has an extensive inventory of educational supplies; recorded materials may be obtained from Recording For The Blind, Inc., 215 East 58th Street, New York.

Realism Versus Blindism. Michelle has been given as many real experiences as possible to aid her in developing concepts related to the actual world. She has an excellent memory and can retain a lot of information, but must be encouraged to try new things and become involved in an experience. "Blindism" occurs as a result of too much listening and not enough participation, and manifests itself in behavior patterns that include pinching or rubbing the eyes, rocking the body or head, going around in circles, hunching into a fetal position, etc. I have always encouraged Michelle to do projects with her hands and body while she was listening, such as building with blocks, playing with dolls or toys, dancing, exercising, etc. We arrange for group play and do not leave her alone for long periods of time. Some of the activities and experiences that Michelle has enjoyed include music and French classes, science programs, swimming and skating lessons, field trips, and family vacations. Girl Scout functions which have provided a long list of activities including overnight camping have also been valuable learning experiences.

Parent/Teacher Cooperation. Parents *must* get involved in the learning processes of blind children and be informed of their special needs. Just as the world owes nothing to the blind person, it owes nothing to the parent. Our responsibility is certainly a little more complex and we need specialized assistance, but we remember that it is the parents' responsibility. If the parents become alerted to the special needs and can assist and reinforce at home, it makes the total school program more effective; the same would be true of any child's learning process, regardless of a physical impairment. As a parent of a blind child I especially appreciate teachers who demand that the visually impaired student perform and be part of all school activities and who recognize their obligation to work closely with specialists, organizations, and the parents to provide an appropriate education for the student.

"Let Your Fingers do the Walking": A Teaching Technique for Slower Learners

Yvonne Houwiller

Objective:
To learn how to use the telephone book in day-to-day consumer decision making.

Implementation:
Divide the class into groups of three.

Each group should have a current (if possible) telephone book and a facsimile of a real telephone with working dial, legible letters and numbers.

One or two persons with the information and necessary consumer knowledge should be seated separately with a telephone to answer their calls.

The teacher will read a series of short incidents (or the students could make up some incidents) and the students look for a way to solve the problem that is described. This involves finding the number of the person or place to call.

They should dial the number outloud and if it is correct and it is not busy, they will get an intercept by one of the persons designated to be taking the calls. (This necessitates a resource person who is quick and alert. Perhaps a second person would be necessary to monitor the calls.)

This offers the students an opportunity to become familiar with the telephone book and also allows for role play and problem solving.

Examples of incidents that could be used:

1. Mary is looking for the bus company so she can find out their schedule. She can't find it and she isn't sure where to look. How can she find out that number? (Call 411)
2. Mary has a new job and thinks she can ride on the bus to get back and forth from work. She makes a telephone call. Who does she call and what does she say? (bus company—role play)
3. Mary wonders about taking a taxi to work instead. It seems a lot easier. How can she find out if it would be wise to do so? (Call one or two taxi companies for rates . . . should look in yellow pages. It may be too abstract and you would have to suggest the yellow pages until they become familiar with it.)

Note: The ideas for incidents are unending. In this situation, it could be an introduction to starting a job or getting a job.

Understanding Exceptional Children and Their Parents

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No one piece of legislation has changed the education of all handicapped children as did the act of 1975, PL 94-142.[1] A portion of the "Education for all Handicapped Children Act" specifies that qualified personnel must be involved in parent education. This means that qualified school personnel are responsible for assisting parents with children who have special needs. In other words, teachers are responsible to help parents understand their child and his/her educational needs. One way this task is accomplished is through the development of appropriate Individualized Education Programs (I.E.P.). This not only requires a good understanding of curriculum, the child and his/her physical dysfunction, but also requires knowledge about the parents of handicapped children. Without this dual appreciation, one may find the implementation of any educational program impossible. One first looks at the children themselves to comprehend the problems faced by the exceptional child.

Understanding The Child

The dynamics which affect the personality development of the special child must be realized by the teacher to assure a smooth transition to the regular class. If all children's behavior can be described as purposeful,[2] then we can better understand the purpose of a child's behavior when we examine the four factors that affect a child's perception of the world including the child's inner environment, family atmosphere, family constellation, and parental attitudes toward the child.[3]

Inner Environment. The child's inherited characteristics are described as the child's inner environment and include such things as height, weight, intellectual ability, and special talents. For example, one who does not have the proper amount of growth hormone, and has grown only an inch in two years is influenced by his inherited traits. This child sees people trying to help him because he is very small. They think he's cute! He now beings to discover that if he appears to have a hard time doing something, someone will come to his resuce. Being small, therefore, has influenced his way of finding his place in the world. Exceptional children are often particularly influenced by inherited factors. Below-average intellectual skills or physical capacities create limitations in children. People respond differently to exceptional children, and *it is how we respond to them that affects their perception of themselves.*

A disability sets certain functional limits, but *the child's perception of the disability* minimizes or maximizes the achievement of his potential. To increase the child's potential, teachers need to be sensitive to these self-perceptions. Teachers must recognize that these inner environmental factors such as physical capacities and intellectual skills affect all children.

Family Atmosphere. Another factor which influences a child's view of himself is that of the family atmosphere established by the parents. The family is the child's first introduction to values, attitudes, and human relationships. Economic, ethnic, and religious values held by the parents will be communicated to the children and incorporated into their frame of reference. They try to integrate the values and attitudes expressed by the parents in a manner that allows them to gain a sense of belonging in the family.

Attitudes conveyed to a child greatly influence how the child responds. For example, a socially-conscious parent spends a great deal of time preparing the severely retarded five-year-old to look "cute" and say "hi" to people at church. Yet the parents spend almost no time at home enjoying the child. It would not be unusual for this child, who decides he wants his parents' attention, to misbehave in public since this is the time the parents usually respond to the child. The teacher needs to be extremely sensitive to parental attitudes, for their influence on the child is monumental.

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[1] J. Ballard, "Public Law 94-142 and Section 504—Understanding What They Are and Are Not." Governmental Relations Unit, The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Virginia, 1977.

[2] R. Dreikurs and V. Soltz, *Children the Challenge* (New York: Hawthorn Books, 1964).

[3] M. Yura and L. Zuckerman, *Raising the Exceptional Child* (New York: Hawthorn Books, 1979).

Family Constellation. The family constellation involves the positioning of children in relation to one another. John is the first born. His parents find pride and joy in everything he does. He is the first to crawl, the first to sit up, and the first to walk; he has been able to find his place through achievement, which comes fairly easily, since he is the only child and there is no imposing threat of competition. What happens, though, when John is two years old and a new baby is brought into the family?

Since John is not an only child any more, he no longer finds it so easy to capture his parents' undivided attention. The new baby, Suellen, now requires much parental attention to meet her basic needs, time which used to be devoted only to John. How does John deal with the feeling of losing his position? John's observation of the situation is correct, that he no longer has his parents' total attention. However, John, like all children, easily misinterprets his observations. John is no less loved by his parents than before. Suellen simply requires much of her parents' time and attention.

Child-Rearing Methods. The fourth factor in the child's outer environment is the child-rearing methods used by the parents. A constant interaction occurs between a child and the parents. The child quickly learns that mother and father have particular reactions to specific behaviors. A child who has a speech loss may have parents who react with guilt and self-pity. The child senses this reaction and may adopt a similar attitude of self-pity and allow himself to become helpless, or the child may choose not to accept the parents' reaction and, instead of giving up, may face the disability with courage.

As children encounter more social situations, they incorporate new behaviors and modify old ones in accordance with their life plan. Their views and ideas on how to find their place have not changed; the external behaviors are strictly adjustments to new external situations, which are merely alternate methods of reaching the child's previously established goal. Therefore, if we understand their life plan, new behaviors will not be confusing to us.

Typical Behavior Patterns

School personnel are likely to encounter an unusually large number of disruptive behaviors in exceptional children. Yet, upon closer analysis there emerges a limited number of personality patterns including discouragement, overcompensation, and "pamperedness", the most common.

Pamperedness. Many children who need special assistance exhibit characteristics similar to those of pampered, or spoiled children. Pamperedness can be exhibited in many ways such as temper tantrums, excessive attention-getting, and acting helpless. These characteristics develop because parents provide special assistance they believe will improve certain abilities in their children and help them overcome their problems. However, children interpret much of this special help as positive recognition. Although they may not like going to the reading specialist, physical therapist, hearing clinic, or speech therapist, they nonetheless learn that their disability provides them with much attention. This service and attention comes to be demanded in the same way it is by spoiled children. The misinterpretation of this special assistance can cause children to believe that "this is the way life is, always having people in my service, doing things for me." Children do not understand that the attention given to them is to help them overcome certain problems. Pamperedness is often a natural outgrowth of the special assistance parents must provide their children. Some of the effects of these services can be offset by changing the way assistance is given.

Discouragement. The second major behavior pattern present in many handicapped children is that of discouragement, created by the belief that they are incapable of a task or that something is wrong with them. The numerous failures that children experience lead them to believe that they cannot possibly accomplish anything they attempt.

The potential discouragement of handicapped children is a reality we must all face because we live in a society where value is placed on success and perfection. When we live with the idea that winning is not only the most important thing, but the only thing, discouragement in exceptional children is almost inevitable.

Overcompensation. Overcompensation is the third major behavior pattern exhibited by exceptional children and can result in positive or negative outcomes. A child who has orthopedic problems may desire to be on the track team and instead of adjusting to the type of athletic activity he can do, he totally avoids athletics and puts all of his energy into becoming an academic success. Although becoming an academic success may be a positive effort, this child negatively avoids athletics because he cannot be successful as a track star.

Pamperedness, discouragement, and overcompensation are not evident in all children, yet they do exist in some form or another in all exceptional children. Parents must be aware of these behavior patterns to be able to establish the redirection of their children's misperception and non-constructive behavior.

Understanding The Parent

With the current emphasis on education of the total person, teachers must be familiar not only with the personality characteristics of exceptional children but also with the child's "total environment". The family then takes on a totally new dimension for the school and the teacher. The teacher must often provide assistance to the parents in dealing with their child. Although most teachers do not have family counseling experience, we can try to understand and support the parent of the exceptional child. Most parents would rather talk to the teacher than seek alternative help in counseling for their family and child.

The prerequisite for providing service to the parent is the teacher's understanding of the many responses parents develop when they have a handicapped child. When teachers understand how a parent thinks and feels, it is easier to relate to a given action. The defensive parents' behaviors are understandable when the teacher realizes that the parents are overly sensitive to criticism about their child.

Most parents of handicapped children attempt to be "good" parents. They want to make sure their children receive every possible opportunity and advantage to be successful. If the child does well, the parents perceive they have done a good job; if the child does poorly, the parents believe they have done a poor job. Most parents want their child to achieve and be successful in spite of his/her limitations. The need to be a good parent is common among all parents; parents of exceptional children sometimes exaggerate this need because of the apparent limitations of the child.

Another reaction to a child's disability is to deny its existence and, hence, to hinder the child's true potential. Emotional reactions that accompany being a parent of an exceptional child must be recognized and dealt with appropriately, or tremendous amounts of energy may be spent on unrealistic goals. Parental energies must be directed toward encouraging independence in their child without negative emotional reactions.

Bitterness, rejection, or feelings of guilt are often expressed by parents of children with special needs. Although these feelings are natural, they are usually counter-productive and greatly detract from the ability to be good parents. Only when parents become aware of and acknowledge these feelings can they deal with them realistically and give their child the opportunity to fulfill his/her potential. Understanding these emotions may be crucial to helping the parent adjust to the situation.

Summary

It is vitally important that teachers be assisted in understanding the personality dynamics that affect handicapped children and their parents. PL 94-142 mandates that an Individualized Educational Program for each child be developed by teachers, administrators, and parents. In addition, the law has mandated that the parents receive assistance not only in helping their child with academic problems but also in understanding their child's behavior. Much of the burden for this assistance falls on the teacher.

Most teacher education institutions have not prepared regular classroom teachers in the basic skills needed to work with exceptional children or in assisting parents to cope with their special children. Teacher in-service education involves understanding the dynamics that affect the behavior of both the handicapped child and the parents.

The greatest gift that teachers can give to the parents of a handicapped child is helping them learn to teach their own children.

Students Define Home Economics Too.

"Home Economics is the interdisciplinary study of the dynamic relationships and interaction between the family, society, and the natural environment, aimed at fostering optimum human growth and development."

Frances Lamb
Master's Student
Home Economics Education
University of Illinois

Incorporating Genetic Information into the Home Economics Curriculum: An Interview

Maryalls Portugal
Graduate Assistant in
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Department of Family
Resources
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Interviewer: (the author)

Do you believe that teachers should deal with genetic counseling?

Dr. Amato: *

I think that every citizen should know the basic core of information about genetics because it enters into everyone's lives. There is a greater awareness today of the advantages of early recognition and intervention to assure that the handicapped child will reach the maximum of his or her potential. In former years, children with problems were pushed to the side too often. People expected them to die and they were left to die even though they often could have been productive citizens. I believe that this enters into education. People should know about the medical aspects; they should be informed about what is available and what their options are. The only way to do this effectively is through the schools.

Interviewer:

What is the relation between genetic information and sex education?

Dr. Amato:

There is no necessary correlation between the two. Genetic information simply relates to how and why children look like their parents and it is somewhat separate from sex education. It would be nice if they were presented together in a meaningful way by a skilled teacher but I think that genetics can be taught independently of sex education.

Interviewer:

How do you see genetic counseling being incorporated into the home economics curriculum?

Dr. Amato:

In West Virginia, the family life program is included in home economics, and genetics can easily be incorporated into this curriculum. For example, concern about the unborn child relates to good prenatal care and proper nutrition; and, the decision to have a baby or not should be considered by all, including young couples. Young people are having babies; an awareness of what the responsibilities of parenthood are, information about birth defects, and how one generation provides for the next in economic and emotional ways is essential.

I don't think that genetics should be separate from concepts about relationships between caring people. Home economics deals with decision making, interpersonal relations, family living, and proper nutrition so that genetic information could be easily incorporated by the home economics teacher in his/her classroom.

Interviewer:

What is your opinion about how much high school students should be told?

Dr. Amato:

I guess I have a prejudice there. I think that people have the right to any information that's available, and questions that are asked should be answered. People do have choices and I think that high school students are no different from other citizens. They need to know what their options are and how they can go about getting answers to the questions they have, including sex education, genetics or birth control. They should be provided the same information as adults. They are, in a biological sense, adults and this is the only time you can insure that they are going to have access to this information.

Dr. Amato

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He has been associated with the University of Nebraska Medical Center as Director of the Laboratory of Medical and Molecular Genetics. As a medical geneticist he was affiliated with the Muscular Dystrophy Center from 1974-1976, and Beth Israel Medical Center in New York in 1968. As an educator, Dr. Amato taught courses in Pediatrics, Anatomy, and Human Genetics from 1968-1976.

Dr. Amato received his M.D. from the University of Nebraska in 1973 and holds a Ph.D. from New York University in Human Genetics (1968), as well as a M.A. in Psychology and Science Education from Columbia University. As a consultant Dr. Amato has served on numerous committees and has authored over twenty publications.

People have many misconceptions. We have found parents of a child with a birth defect to whom well meaning people have said, "It must have been something you've done," or "It must be punishment for past evil." That's not correct. What often happens is that the parents get so caught up in guilt and blame that they can't deal with the child or each other, and the marriage has an increased chance of failure. This is to the detriment of the affected child and to any other children in the family. It just doesn't make sense to use folklore or old wives' tales when there is factual information available to calm and reassure people.

Interviewer:

Could you offer us some suggestions for teaching techniques to help student internalize information concerning genetic counseling?

Dr. Amato:

This is a problem I deal with when I talk to high school students. I start off by using a cartoon with a picture of a father, mother, and child. The father is dressed in a suit with vertical stripes and the mother is wearing a dress with horizontal stripes. The child standing between them has a combination of both vertical and horizontal stripes on the clothes, illustrating the concept that children are a blend of both parents. I explain that the sperm and egg come together and at that moment in time, a unique individual is set with a blueprint for development established at the time of conception. This blueprint unravels, relates to, and controls the development of the embryo, fetus, and ultimately the baby that is born. Although the process happens within the mother, the process is independent of maternal control.

Birth defects could be introduced by the presentation of a problem known to the students. The teacher could then say, "Let's examine the problem. Is this a problem due to some evil that the parents did?", or "What's your conception about that?" Obviously birth defects are fairly frequent. An extended family with thirty to forty members stands close to a 100% chance of having a still-born child or one with some problem. This could be a point of departure for discussion.

Sometimes a community will have an unusual event such as the birth of Siamese twins. Many people in the community will hear about it and various things will come to mind including "Why does this happen?", "Was it because of an evil thing the mother or father did?" or "What actually did happen?" Genetics could then be examined. Each community could explore those things relevant to them such as the birth of a child with a problem or a family with a recurring difficulty.

I think the study of human development and genetics in a home economics course is very appropriate. We are all vitally interested in people, especially our own children.

Interviewer:

Would you please react to the common belief students have that "It can't happen to me."

Dr. Amato:

I think the statistics are pretty clear. In West Virginia about 3 to 4 children out of 100 have a significant birth defect. Some problems happen to all families; it can happen in my family and can occur without specific family history. Of course, in most instances (32 out of 33 pregnancies) things go well.

However, we know that teenage mothers have a greater proportion of problems. Those problems relate to babies that are small for gestational age or what we call dysmature or premature babies. Dysmature and premature babies have the same problems such as regulating body sugar and temperature. They're more susceptible to blood vessel and bleeding problems, especially into the brain, which can result in mental retardation or hydrocephalus. These are issues that the high school teacher can address because they are very real. Teenage mothers have more problems, and most of them occur in the areas of nutrition or medical care. A birth defect can happen to anyone.

Interviewer:

What are your beliefs about schools which are located in communities where they don't want sex education taught in class?

Dr. Amato:

Although I disagree with that idea, I think that a community is free to make that decision. I do believe information should be available for people seeking it; however, if it's not available in the school, there should be another means or source for obtaining it. I don't see genetic information as sex education, however. In fact, when we approach it with patients, we teach them genetics so they can understand what we're talking about. We don't really discuss sex education; we just deal with genetics.

Interviewer:

Thank you Dr. Amato.

Clothing for Disabled Students

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Carefully designed clothing can encourage independence in dressing, increase the adjustment to physical limitations, and heighten a disabled student's self-esteem. Clothing plays an important part in meeting the physical, social, and personal needs of all students, but is especially important for the disabled student.[1] It can help to meet the physical needs of safety, comfort, and independence; the social needs of acceptance, participation, and recognition; and, the personal needs of self-awareness, self-expression, self-confidence, and self-enhancement. The physical needs for clothing of disabled children were studied first, followed by research dealing with the social and personal significance of clothing.

Occupational therapists have been involved in developing functional clothing to meet the physical needs of disabled children since the 1940's. They have been primarily concerned with promoting maximum independence in dressing and have given less emphasis to the social and personal aspects of clothing. Home economists entered the field in the 1950's and have shown a broader understanding of the clothing needs of the disabled by dealing with the importance of clothing in personal development and social interaction.[2]

Early investigators designed practical clothing for people with specific disabilities.[3] More recent findings have shown that an analysis of the functional limitation caused by a disability is more important in clothing design than a specific type of disability.[4] Special clothing needs may be the same whether the student is wheelchair bound due to spinal cord injury or spina bifida; it is the functional limitation of wheelchair confinement, rather than the disability, which is the major design consideration.

As handicapped students enter home economics classes, the teacher has to be aware of clothing design features suitable for various functional limitations. In the analysis of special clothing needs, one must first consider whether the person can dress independently, has the potential to dress independently, or needs assistance in dressing. This is an important starting point in selecting suitable design features because, in general, front opening garments more often promote independent dressing and back opening garments simplify dressing someone else. The occupational therapist, the parents and the student can serve as resources persons in determining the degree of independence expected.

Functional limitations which create special clothing needs include: (1) limited movement due to use of a wheelchair, crutches, braces or a walker; (2) limited arm and finger movement; (3) limited perceptual ability due to hemiplegia, sensory loss or loss of balance; (4) limited strength or endurance; (5) limited visual ability; and (6) limited physical ability due to lack of control of the bowel or bladder or drooling. Figure 1 gives clothing suggestions for each of the functional limitations.

Clothing for disabled students can be obtained from ready-to-wear sources or custom designed from a pattern. The necessary design features for a given functional limitation may be found on carefully selected ready-to-wear. Minor adaptations may be necessary to make the garment suitable.[7]

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[1] Jacquelyn Yep, "Clothing for the Physically Limited" slide set, Iowa State University Extension Information Service, Morrill Hall, Ames, Iowa, November 1977.

[2] Clari Bare, Eleanor Boettke, and Neva Waggoner, *Self-Help Clothing for Handicapped Children* (Chicago, Illinois: National Easter Seal Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 1962).

Adeline M. Hoffman, *Clothing for the Handicapped, the Aged, and Other People with Special Needs* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1979).

Anne Kernaleguen, *Clothing Designs for the Handicapped* (Edmonton, Alberta, Canada: The University of Alberta Press, 1978).

Clarice L. Scott, "Clothing Needs of Physically Handicapped Homemakers" *Journal of Home Economics*, 51, No. 8 (1959): pp. 704-713.

[3] Dorothy S. Hall and Paul J. Vignos, "Clothing Adaptations for the Child with Progressive Muscular Dystrophy" *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 28, No.3 (1964): pp. 108-112.

[4] Jacquelyn Orlando Yep, "Tools for Aiding Physically Disabled Individuals Increase Independence in Dressing" *Journal of Rehabilitation*, 43, No. 5 (1977): pp. 39-41.

[5] "Be OK Self-Help Aids," Fred Sammons, Inc., Box 32, Brookfield, Illinois 60513.

[6] "Aids and Appliances for the Blind and Visually Impaired," American Foundation for the Blind, 15 West 16th Street, New York, New York 10011.

[7] Nora MacDonald and Kate Clark, "Adapting Ready-to-Wear Clothing for Special Needs" slide set, Center for Extension and Continuing Education, Personal and Family Development, 604 Knapp Hall, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia 26506.

Commercial patterns also serve as a starting point for functional, well-fitting clothing. Again, careful initial selection is important so that desirable design features are included in the pattern and/or are easily incorporated to meet individual needs. Patterns designed specifically for handicapped persons have recently been developed.[8]

With a knowledge of design features suitable for different functional limitations, and a willingness to work with resource people, the home economics teacher can help solve a disabled student's clothing needs in a creative way. The teacher can use clothing to enhance a student's self-esteem and therefore increase the chances for meaningful social relationships, successful academic endeavors, and eventual employment. A home economics teacher's knowledge of current fashion, peer group influence on clothing selection, and proper fit can significantly contribute to the clothing needs of disabled students. In addition, this exploration can be a rewarding challenge to the teacher.

Figure 1. Clothing Needs for Various Functional Limitations

Functional Limitation and Clothing Considerations

1) Limited Movement—

Wheelchair Bound

- Moderately full skirts
- Skirt length: consider fashion and modesty
- Short or 3/4 length sleeves
- Kimono or raglan sleeves
- Action pleats in bodice back
- Gathers across bodice back suspended from yoke
- Pockets: back pockets unnecessary, consider placement when seated, on pant leg with Velcro flap
- Short jackets; coats cut short in back
- Two-way jacket zippers
- Back wrap garments
- Two-piece outfits
- Short front crotch length and long back crotch length for pants
- Non-bulky, soft, absorbent, washable fabrics

Crutch users

- Long shirt tails or body suit
- Short or 3/4 length sleeves
- Sleeves with gussets or underarm reinforcement
- Lower or loose necklines
- Front opening dresses
- Ease through shoulder area: knit inserts, action pleats, back yoke with bodice, back gathers
- Pockets

Brace wearers

- Reinforcement at contact areas: iron-on patches, double fabric layers, flat felled seams, double stitched seams
- Firmly woven fabrics (knits may snag)
- Moderately full skirts
- Separates
- Openings with Velcro closures for lock adjustments and bracing

Walker user

- Moderately full skirts
- Consider garment length to avoid tripping
- Ease through shoulder area: knit inserts, action pleats, back yoke with bodice back gathers
- Pockets: on garment and/or carry-all on walker
- Long shirt tails

2) Limited arm or finger movement

- Raglan or kimono sleeves
- Short or 3/4 length sleeves
- Dresses instead of separates
- Slip on dresses and shirts
- Ease through shoulder and arm area: knit inserts, action pleats, gussets, yokes and gathers
- Wide openings, elasticized waistbands
- Easy-to-reach fasteners
- Easy-to-use fasteners: large buttons with shanks, pre-buttoned cuffs with buttons sewn on with elastic thread, Velcro, elastic shoe laces
- Dressing aids[5]: stocking gutter, button hook, dressing stick, reaching tongs, zipper pull, long handled shoe horn, twill tape loops sewn to socks and pants
- Garment opening: front if independent, back if dressed by someone else
- Knit fabrics

3) Limited perceptual ability

- Careful pocket placement to avoid catching on things and falling
- Front openings
- Flame retardant fabrics
- "Fashionable sling" (kangaroo pocket) to put weak arm in while near stove
- Avoid flowing sleeves
- Protective apron
- Dress while seated; dress affected side first

4) Limited strength or endurance

- Dresses rather then separates
- Pre-tied ties and bows
- Pre-thread belts onto garment
- Lightweight garments
- Dress while seated
- Attach underpants to pants or slip to skirt and pull on together
- Use of dressing aids, as needed

5) Limited visual ability

- Mark garments with French knots or Braille tags[6]
- Organize clothes in closet
- Fasten socks together with sock sorter before washing

6) Limited physical ability

Incontinence

- Back wrap skirts
- Moderately full skirts or slacks to accommodate incontinence device
- Protective pants, diapers
- Open-back nightwear
- Washable fabrics
- Short shirt tails

Drooling

- Coordinated bibs
- Removable front yokes
- Aprons
- Washable fabrics

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[8] Kay Caddel, "The Natural Creations—Patterns Designed for the Physically and Mentally Handicapped," Textile Research Center, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, Texas.

Survey for Accessibility

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The passage of legislation regarding the removal of "architectural, structural or environmental" barriers for handicapped persons has caused renewed interest in space use and design for people of all ages, sizes, and capabilities. Functional designs are often distorted by special advocate groups to fit one set of needs. While adaptations to the environment may increase function for one group, those same modifications may reduce function for others. The needs of all groups must be analyzed when considering the resale value of homes or the use of public buildings. As new standards for accessibility (ANSI 117-1) are continually being revised and upgraded by the American National Standard Institute, it may be advantageous to consider needs and space use of people as changing, but being more alike than different.[1] When designing functional space, consideration should be given to the aged, blind, deaf, mentally retarded, wheelchair users, and those who ambulate with difficulty. Their special needs are discussed below.

Ambulatory Difficulty. Reduced mobility can be related to incoordination, muscle weakness, cardiac or pulmonary problems as well as permanent or temporary use of crutches, canes, braces, assistive devices, due to low function in upper or lower extremities. It has been estimated that 60% of the population are in this ambulatory/mobility impaired category at some time in their life. The users of bilateral crutches may use steps more easily than some ramps, so in public areas, if the ramp slope ratio is greater than 1:12, steps should be an alternate choice.

Aged. Lowered levels of mobility, vision, hearing acuity, strength, mental functioning, and muscle response may be present in the aged population. Very little consideration has been given to the design of living space or public use areas to meet the limitations of this increasing segment of our population. (There are now eight million people over the age of 75 and one million people past the age of 85.*) Many older citizens may be unable to see through the security peepholes in doors which are located 5'6" from the floor or may find it difficult to bend over to use baseboard outlets or to reach up to change the setting on the thermostat.

Blind. Environmental adaptations need to be made for the totally blind and for the visually impaired who need to make the maximum use of their remaining sight. Increased safety and security can be obtained with the use of color and texture contrasts to mark functional areas in an interesting way, good lighting so level changes are not shadowed, good location cues provided by handrails which extend 12" beyond the last riser, and recessed areas for wall mounted items.

Deaf. Communication misunderstandings and problems occur daily for the 13 million people with hearing impairments. Sign language and new technology in portable equipment will solve some problems, but only awareness and education will remove attitudinal barriers. Well marked travel areas, restrooms and floor maps are very important to independence for the deaf, since asking for and receiving directions from others is very difficult.

Mentally Retarded. A mentally handicapped person must be able to manipulate the environment rather than adapt to it. The surroundings must be easily negotiated and interesting without being too complex. Constant cues to enhance low sensory perception and to encourage interaction with the environment are needed. In addition, attractive, functional space promotes a positive self-image.

Wheelchair User. Problems in level changes, the use of extra energy to travel, and the same limiting factors of height experienced by children and short adults are presented daily to wheelchair users. Many have accepted the technological changes in new automated wheelchairs, but due to the very sensitive controls required to operate some chairs, erratic movements or rapid changes of direction may be caused by uneven pavement or floor surfaces.

The needs of the wheelchair user are often used as a "model" for maximum accessibility, but these needs must be considered along with the needs of others. The environment should be modified so that *equal* does not mean some inconvenience for some, but meets the needs of everyone. The following chart, developed by the Homemaker Rehabilitation unit of the Department of Family Resources, West Virginia University, identifies the primary concerns in the use of space, changes in elevation and in functional work areas used by all human beings in everyday activities (See Figure 1). Data was collected from many sample accessibility surveys and compiled to be used in community awareness programs. Where great differences occurred in two or more sources, the situation was evaluated in the community, a rehabilitation center, or a nursing home close to the campus.

*U.S. Department of Commerce Bureau of the Census U.S. Census of Population, 1970.

Figure 1. Survey for Accessibility

	Ambulatory Problems	Mentally Retarded	Wheel-Chair Users	Aged	Blind	Deaf
PARKING						
Parking area clearly marked	M	M	M	M	R	NA
Restricted area marked	M	M	M	M	R	NA
Restricted area 16" wide/car	M	NA	M	M	R	NA
Travel path from parking or public transportation smooth and ramped at 12" to 1' minimum, 48" wide	M	R	M	M	M	R
If slope is long, need a 5' landing at every 20-30 ft.	M	R	M	M	R	R
Handrails 1 1/2" diameter at 32" height	M	R	M	M	R	R
ENTRY						
Doors have clear opening of 32" width and landing of 5' x 5' with 1'6" clear beside door	R	R	M	R	R	R
Lever type handles at 36"	M	R	M	M	R	R
Sheltered entrance	R	R	R	R	R	R
INTERIOR						
Halls minimum 42" wide, no projection from wall beginning above 20" or hanging from ceiling below 6'6"[2]	R	R	M	R	M	R
Steps have alternate route (ramp or elevator)	R	R	M	M	R	R
Floors have non-slip surface	M	M	M	M	M	M
Carpet is smooth, firmly secured	M	M	M	M	M	M
Door handles, wall switches, outlets at 36" — 42" from floor	R	R	M	M	R	R
Door numbers are in contrasting colors, raised figures, at 5' high and above handle	R	R	M	M	M	R
Doors leading to stairs or danger areas have knurled knobs	R	R	R	R	M	R
Water fountains at 20-33"	R	R	M	M	R	R
Warning signals: Auditory and Visual	R	R	R	M	M	R
Residential Space: Garage or carport 13' wide	M	R	M	M	R	R
KITCHEN						
Sit-down desk type mixcenter	M	M	M	M	M	M
Sink—opening underneath 28" wide, rear drain	R	R	M	M	R	R
Insulated pipes—Single level, paddle style faucet	R	M	M	M	M	R
Temperature control on hot water	M	M	M	M	M	M
Counter area 18" wide beside range, refrigerator and oven	M	M	M	M	M	R
Counter area continuous	M	M	M	M	M	M
Floor cabinets have toe space 6" deep, 9" high	R	R	M	R	R	R
Have pull-out work spaces at 29" height	R	R	M	M	R	R
Storage: maximum use 24" to 55" from floor	R	R	M	M	R	R
Adjustable shelves	M	M	M	M	M	M
Range controls prevent reaching over burner	R	M	M	M	M	R
5 sq. ft. clear area for turning	R	R	M	R	R	R
BEDROOM						
3 ft. clearance beside bed	R	M	M	M	M	R
Mattress at 19" (seat level)	R	R	M	M	R	R
Phone plug in, light switch reached from bed	R	M	M	M	M	R
Closet: sliding doors, adjustable rods and shelves	R	R	M	M	R	R

M = *Must* be present for function
R = *Recommended* for function at lowest energy level
NA = Not applicable

Chart continued on next page

BATHROOM						
Doors unlock from both sides	R	M	M	M	R	R
Alarms to summon help	M	M	M	M	M	M
Tub: Grab bars—full length and ends securely attached	R	R	M	M	M	R
Non-slip bottom	M	M	M	M	M	M
Temperature controlled faucet that requires no grip	M	M	M	M	M	M
Seat at rim height, non-slip, securely fastened	R	M	M	M	M	R
Shower: Roll-in with no curb; Sit in (transfer) seat; secure grab bars for transfer; Detachable hand held shower head with temperature control	R	R	M	M	R	R
Stalls 3 ft. wide; center of floor has 60 sq. in. turning space	R	R	M	M	R	R
Toilet height (19" preferred)	M	R	R	R	R	R
Grab bars: both sides 30" floor, 1 1/2' diameter, 1 1/2' from wall[3]	R	R	M	R	R	R
1 lavatory at 30"	R	R	M	R	R	R
1 lavatory at 36"	M	M			M	M
Faucets: Left=Hot, Right=Cold (single lever with mixing preferred)	R	R	M	R	M	R
Temperature controlled	R	M	M	M	M	R
Mirrors, soap, towels, tissues at 36" - 40"	R	R	M	M		R
Telephones at 36" - 40"	R	R	M	M	R	R
Counters (tickets, info, etc.) 30" - 33"	R	R	M	M	R	R
Lighting: Well lighted, without glare	M	M	M	M	M	M

[1] *ANSI-A117, 1-1961, R-1971.* "American Standards Specifications for Making Buildings and Facilities Accessible to and Usable by the Handicapped," American National Standard Institute, New York, New York, 1971.

[2] A blind person using a cane does not "find" projections in the range above 20-23" from floor, and no way to detect hanging signs, lights, etc., at head or body height.

[3] Fiberglass tub/shower enclosures are very difficult to fit with secure grab bars. Towel racks should not be used for grab bars! GRAB BARS must be 1 1/2" from wall and support 250 pounds at any given point.

References

1. Cary, Jane Randolph, *How to Create Interiors for the Disabled* (New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1978).
2. Chasin, Joseph and Saltman, Jules, *The Wheelchair in the Kitchen* (Washington, D.C.: Paralyzed Veterans of America, Inc., 1973).
3. *Check List for Designing Facilities*, State Board of Vocational Education, Charleston, West Virginia, 1974.
4. Guthrie, J. L. and Moran, J., *Building Housing for the Handicapped*, Title I, AHEA funded pamphlet, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia, 1979.

Mainstreamed students don't need the extra handicap of overweight or obesity. Nutrition is an important part of their curriculum. Like other students, they are not likely to respond to commands (e.g., eat the basic four) but can learn principles from well planned activities.

Homemaker Rehabilitation: A Career Possibility

The following articles consider a career as a Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor. The authors discuss the preparation for this career, the role of this professional in a state vocational rehabilitation program, and benefits to the persons with severe handicaps. A case study by a Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor illustrates the kind of work that is done with persons who, due to a disability, are unable to perform tasks of homemaking.

Careers for Home Economists in Rehabilitation

In today's job market there is an increasing demand for people to work in human services. This need adds new dimensions to traditional roles; for example, it permits a person to choose a traditional field, such as home economics, and apply non-traditional or qualifying constraints to fit the individual's style and the job description. Consider how a check list of occupational choices might be viewed in a non-traditional manner. A person might be interested in:

Teaching home economics,	But NOT kids in a classroom;
Working with community groups	But NOT as an extension agent;
Helping families,	But NOT in a day care program;
Designing,	But NOT as a traditional interior designer;
Housing,	But NOT as a builder;
Medicine,	But NOT as a doctor or nurse;
Work evaluation,	But NOT in a factory;
Counseling,	But NOT as a psychologist;
Working with handicapped persons,	But NOT as a therapist;
Clothing design,	But NOT regular ready-to-wear;
Clothing construction,	But NOT in industry.

Most of the occupations listed are related to various careers in the field of home economics. *All* of them are a part of Homemaker Rehabilitation Counseling.

The need for persons trained in home economics to work with people who have disabilities was recognized at least as early as 1953. At that time members of the American Home Economics Association met with representatives of the Rehabilitation Services Administration and began planning for the two groups to work together in this venture. Since then only a few college degree programs at either the undergraduate or graduate level have survived the drastic cut-backs in federal funds, but the potential for a rewarding occupation is still available and growing.

Some programs that prepare Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselors are at the undergraduate level but there are problems with entering this employment area with only a BS degree. Entry pay is lower than with a master's degree, and certification (which mandates a master's degree) for rehabilitation and allied health workers is fast becoming a requirement. Other team members have advanced degrees and the home economics member may be at a disadvantage. In addition, the bachelor's degree in home economics covers a broad range of course work some of which would have to be deleted if the necessary specialized courses for this occupational area are added.

The advantage of a master's degree in Homemaker Rehabilitation Counseling is that the family-centered content of the home economics bachelor's degree program can serve as a foundation upon which to build. To the undergraduate core of knowledge about normal human growth and development, course content in the medical aspects of disability, mental retardation, and special populations is added. Also, based on the home economist's knowledge of home management, emphasis on work simplification and adaptive equipment and techniques is included. In the clothing construction area, clothing for the handicapped is added, which includes needs assessment, design development, resources, and marketing. Undergraduate housing courses serve as the basis for the study of architectural barriers and design. Removing barriers and increasing the efficiency of human energy are also important areas of study in the program.

At West Virginia University, the master's degree program in Homemaker Rehabilitation Counseling is a multi-disciplinary program with courses from Family Resources, Rehabilitation Counseling, Counseling and Guidance, Community Medicine, and Special Education. It has an internship requirement that provides students with the opportunity to practice new skills, counseling techniques, and teaching methods while working with disabled persons. The program outline is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Suggested Curriculum for Students in Homemaker Rehabilitation Counseling

Core Curriculum

Family Resources

Introduction to Homemaker Rehabilitation:
Philosophy, History, Legislation and Trends
Community Resources for the Disabled:
Structural Barriers, Resources, and Team Approach
Management for the Disabled: Homemaker
Modifications in Practices, Techniques, and
Equipment to Maximize Function
Clothing for the Handicapped and Aged
Practicum

Rehabilitation Counseling and/or Psychology

Introduction to Rehabilitation Services
Psychological Aspects of Disability *or*
Psychology of Exceptional Children

Community Medicine

Medical Aspects of Disability

Approved Electives

Family Resources

Home Management Theory
The Individual in the Community
Independent Research
Curriculum Development
Supervision in Home Economics
Evaluation in Home Economics

Psychology

Abnormal Psychology
Group Dynamics
Psychology of Adjustment

Rehabilitation Counseling

Counseling Practicum

Social Work

Social Welfare Policy
Human Behavior and Social Environment

Sociology

Group Dynamics
Culture and Personality

Special Education

Survey of Special Education
Instructional Strategies for the Profoundly Handicapped

Statistics

Students who complete this program find work in many different areas including employment as a:

- Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor with a state agency such as Vocational Rehabilitation or Workman's Compensation;
- Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor in a rehabilitation center where handicapped individuals are retrained for homemaking tasks;
- Resource teacher for a large school system with mainstreamed physically limited students;
- Designers in the furniture and cabinet industry to design barrier-free furnishings;

• Consultant in the home building industry to design barrier-free housing;
• Designers in the garment industry to design clothing for the handicapped;
• Home-bound instructor for a non-profit agency;
• Administrator for the Public Health Department's Visiting Homemaker program;
• Home economics teacher for disabled students.

The home economist does have a major role to play on the rehabilitation team. The background of family-centered course work, linked to a well designed master's degree program can prepare a student to enter the job market with a wide variety of saleable skills to seek a rewarding career.

The Home Economist in Rehabilitation

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Many women and men who are disabled choose to practice the vocation of homemaking. In 1970, the West Virginia Division of Vocational Rehabilitation developed a pilot program to hire a home economist with special training in rehabilitation counseling. It was believed that this combination of expertise and skills could best provide insight into needs of the occupation of homemaking as performed by a person having functional limitations. This Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor could provide services not then available to clients such as the severely disabled homemaker with spinal cord injury, multiple sclerosis, or other severe disability such as stroke. In other words, since "homemaker" was and is, a legitimate vocational choice, it was the Agency's belief that we should provide comprehensive services to this group who were in need of rehabilitation services not available to them before 1970.

The pilot program which provided comprehensive rehabilitation services and in-home training to homemakers in the pilot study proved to be quite successful. The Agency then expanded the program statewide and hired home economists with rehabilitation training.

The Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor's role within the system is many-faceted. First, they are Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors meeting necessary qualifications for that position. Second, they are home economists who, through specialized preparation, have learned about the problems and limitations faced by persons with disabilities, and can creatively apply problem solving methods to getting a job done. Other roles they perform are:

• *evaluator*—assesses the functional ability and performance level of a homemaker in her own home.
• *educator*—uses evaluation findings as a basis for developing an educational plan which can be implemented in a client's home.
• *family counselor*—assists all family members in adjusting to changes brought about by the homemaker's disability.
• *consultant*—to clients of other counselors; the Home Rehabilitation Counselor, along with the regular counselor, visits the client, makes an evaluation, develops a plan, and assists with needed changes in housing, adaptive equipment, clothing, and family management.
• *community change agent*—works through community organizations to remove attitudinal barriers and architectural barriers that handicap a person with a disability.
• *advocate*—finds ways for disabled persons to participate fully in the community.

The hiring of Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselors to provide in-home services for clients has proven successful. This program has provided meaningful services to a population that previously had limited services and almost no training available.

An unplanned bonus of the program to serve homemakers is that the West Virginia Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, as a result of the work of the Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor, is ready to begin providing independent living services, as mandated by PL 95-2600, the Comprehensive Rehabilitation Act of 1978. Though the service delivery system has not been finally defined, it is apparent that the Home Rehabilitation Counselor, who has added significantly to the present program, will play an important role in the establishment of future Independent Living Programs in the West Virginia Division of Vocational Rehabilitation.

A major obstacle to independence was the six steps leading from ground level to the door of Donna's mobile home. A four-foot motor-driven wheelchair lift was installed, enabling her to get in and out without having to be carried. This allowed for increased independence and provided for an emergency exit.

Inside the mobile home, I planned and designed major renovations which utilized my background from courses in housing, interior design, and home management. Cabinets beneath the sink were removed for foot and knee room while seated in a wheelchair, counter surfaces were lowered to 29" from the floor, and storage space was planned for easy access. In addition, the dining area was rearranged to create a larger space in which to turn the wheelchair. For the bathroom, I recommended the installation of a secure tub seat and grab bars where needed for support.

At my last visit, Donna was caring for herself and her husband. She enjoys the independence of doing her own work and getting out of the home for shopping and socialization. The energy which she learned to ration is sufficient to complete necessary tasks while still being able to participate in social activities such as church choir and teaching Sunday School. Donna, now 32 years old, is a successful homemaker who has maximized her abilities and minimized the limitations of her disability.

Summary. Working with a client to provide individual homemaker instruction, coordinating appropriate ancillary services, and determining whether and when the vocational goal has been successfully achieved are the main roles of the Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor. The opportunity to work in a one-on-one situation with the client and family in their own home gives the Homemaker Rehabilitation Counselor an over-view of the situation. This provides a good opportunity to provide necessary vocational services so that the man or woman can again be a vital participant in the family structure. Vocational rehabilitation services may take a week or several years, and they may be merely the purchase of adaptive equipment or the provision of extensive medical services and training. If the individual can function better in the role of homemaker, then the homemaker rehabilitation program has been successful in its endeavors.

West Virginia FHA/HERO Focus on the Handicapped

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Andy Lacey, Vice-president West Virginia FHA/HERO from Kermit High School and Beverly Wayte, FHA/HERO member at Buckhannon-Upshur High School, and their advisors, Mrs. Sue Lacey and Mrs. Carole Parsons, represented the National Future Homemakers of America at a special training session on Mainstreaming Activities for Youth (Project M.A.Y.) in Washington, D.C., March, 1980. Project M.A.Y. is a special project sponsored by the National Collaboration of Youth and its goal is to prepare written materials for group activities that will be appropriate for local youth chapters to use.

As a result of that training session FHA/HERO chapters in West Virginia are focusing on the handicapped. A special Lakeside conference will be held in November to train youth representing local chapters to return to their chapters to promote activities designed to heighten awareness of the handicapped and promote more positive attitudes toward this group of students.

Special activities at the November conference include role playing during which members simulate handicapping conditions. Using blindfolds, ear plugs, wheelchairs and crutches, students simulated the daily living activities as accomplished by a person with one of those handicapping conditions. Following the simulation students interacted with handicapped youth and adults to discover numerous ways in which small adaptations permitted mainstreaming into society.

Special emphasis will be given to the March of Dimes, Healthy Babies project where students learned about birth defects and resulting handicapping conditions. Resource persons, such as genetic counselors, obstetricians and nurses will be on hand to discuss and present information on specific handicapping conditions.

Materials developed by the Project M.A.Y. staff will be utilized, and youth will be trained to use the materials and return home with expertise to share with local chapters. Efforts will be made to recruit handicapped students as members of FHA/HERO chapters.

The Deaf and Hearing Impaired Student in Home Economics

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Due to the mainstreaming of handicapped students, home economics teachers are likely to have hearing-impaired students in their classes. It is also possible, though not common, that deaf students may be assigned to regular classrooms.

Verbal communication can serve as a learning channel for the hearing impaired who use a hearing aid, but the educational techniques for teaching deaf students are significantly different. An important problem in the education of a deaf student is the inability to develop speech and language through the sense of hearing. They do not hear speech and, therefore, language and the meanings of words are not acquired through the sense of hearing. In addition to communication problems, deaf students often experience difficulties in social adjustment. This can also affect the educational process.

Teaching and learning strategies to minimize the handicap within a regular home economics classroom can include the following practices.

1. We educate the deaf student visually through the use of handouts, worksheets, bulletin boards, games, personal experiences, individual and group projects, and by using the chalkboard.
2. When talking to the class, we try to face the hearing impaired students and to talk more slowly and distinctly, but not louder. We arrange the seating so that all students can see the teacher clearly and so that the teacher faces the light.
3. Before giving any directions, we try to get the attention of all students. Written instructions on the chalkboard, in addition to verbal instruction, can be even more helpful.
4. In order for other students to be aware of the hearing impaired student's problems, they need to be properly oriented. An early orientation, which includes a healthy, non-condescending attitude by the teacher, a peer tutoring situation, and involvement of the hearing-impaired students should bring about awareness and acceptance.
5. Many times handicapped students will isolate themselves from other students so we encourage the deaf and hearing-impaired to participate in social and extra-curricular activities.
6. An interpreter who is able to relate information by sign language may be needed.
7. The use of a tape recorder to record material presented in class may be helpful in review and home study for those who have some hearing.
8. We notify the students in advance of subjects to be discussed so that the students can become familiar with the vocabulary.
9. We keep in mind that students with hearing impairments are fatigued more rapidly because of the continuous strain resulting from efforts to keep up and compete in classroom activities.

1. Gibbons, Sarah Jane, *A Guide to Mainstreaming in Home Economics* (West Virginia: Bureau of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education, West Virginia State Department of Education, No date).

Housing for the Handicapped

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Today's housing is designed for the 45% of our nation's population who do not have a physical or mental handicap.* The old, young, pregnant, or temporarily injured may have as much difficulty coping with their environment as those who are deaf, blind, mentally retarded, or physically disabled. However, the disabled and the non-disabled may be handicapped by environmental obstacles. For example, a small child has the same height handicap as an adult in a wheelchair; or a healthy adult may fall on a slippery floor as easily as a person with a mobility problem.

The removal of architectural barriers for the disabled can make living more convenient for the non-disabled as well. Except in homes specifically designed for wheelchairs, none of the following features for new home construction or home remodeling will make a home less desirable in the housing market but may, in fact, add to its resale value.

Designing New Homes for the Disabled. Access to the home is a first major consideration. The building site should be level enough so that extensive ramping is not needed. When ramps are required, minimum width is 48" with a slope ratio of 1:12. Steps should have vertical or slanted risers with no abrupt nosings. Stairways, corridors or ramps should have along both sides 32" high hand rails which are easy to grasp and which extend 18" beyond both ends of stairs or ramps. The ends should be turned down to provide tactile cues or turned into a wall to avoid dangerous projections.

Doorways present problems for many mobility-disabled individuals. Exterior doors should be 36" wide and have horizontally aligned lever handles, 36" to 42" high, turned in toward the door. Interior doors should be 32" wide. Wheelchair users and persons with hand and arm limitations find side-hung or folding interior doors easier to manage. Doorway thresholds should not be more then 3/4" above floor level on either side to facilitate wheelchair use and/or to minimize falls.

Non-slip floor surfaces are a must for many disabled individuals. Carpeting minimizes injury from falls but must be well fitted and securely attached to the floor. Wall-to-wall carpeting is preferred over area rugs to eliminate tripping.

For persons with reaching limitations, window sills should be 30" to 36" high. Casement or awning-type windows with cord-operated or remote controlled window blinds and draperies are recommended.

Electric switches and outlets should be 36" to 42" from the floor to facilitate their use. Luminous light switches are helpful, as well as three-way switches at entries to kitchens, entry halls, and staircases. In addition, lighting levels should be increased for the visually impaired. Electrical outlets should be installed every 4' in the kitchen and every 6' in other rooms.

Clothes rod height for easy reach of the wheelchair user is 42" to 48". Adjustable rods can be provided for maximum flexibility to meet individual needs. Shelving should be about 3" above the clothes rod, with a maximum height of 48" and depth of 18".

To minimize movement, a telephone can be placed in a wall between two rooms and accessible to both rooms. Additional phone jacks are also desirable.

The disabled individual's specific abilities dictate planning in the kitchen. A U-shape or an L-shape kitchen plan is best, with continuous counters joining the range, refrigerator, and sink. Counter-tops for chairbound persons should be 30" high.

A shallow (5 1/2") sink with a long swinging faucet with a mesh aerator and single lever control, a spray hose, 36" wide knee space, and insulated pipes located in a rear corner is preferred. The controls could be installed on one side of the sink, closer to the front; the side selected would be dependent on which hand the disabled person uses.

The cooking center should have the range top flush with the counter, and have one row of burners or staggered burners. Push button controls at the front or on one side near the front of the range top are easiest to use. Self-cleaning ovens save work, and if the oven is wall-mounted, the doors should be the same height as the heat resistant counter top.

Everything in daily use must be within the grasp of the disabled person. Knee space under the sink and work area will reduce the amount of available base cabinet, but by careful planning extra storage space may be gained. For example, deep cabinets can have pull-out shelves or a roll-out unit; deep drawers can have vertical storage; corners can contain revolving shelves; and the space between countertop and wall cabinets can be utilized by adding pegboard, shelves, or shallow cabinets.

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*Guthrie, JoAnne and Joan Moran, *Housing for the Handicapped*, Department of Family Resources, West Virginia University.

Like the kitchen, the bathroom must be planned with specific abilities in mind. A wheelchair needs a 60" turning space and 48" in the front or to one side of the toilet for transfer from the wheelchair. The toilet may need to be slightly higher than standard and should have grab bars along one or both sides.

A countertop sink provides a well-supported work surface. It should have a single level faucet with temperature control. The cabinet, mirror and accessories may be lowered to approximately 36" from the floor. A wide roll-in shower, 36" by 36", is recommended. The shower or tub should have a securely attached, slip-proof bench, a flexible shower hose, grab bars on two or three sides, and a non-slip base. The faucet should be a mixing temperature controlled unit with a paddle-type control. All grab bars, towel racks, and shelves should be attached to wall studs and strong enough to support 250 pounds for 5 minutes.

Remodeling Existing Homes for the Disabled. An existing home can be remodeled to meet special needs with a minimum of effort and money. A first major consideration is that living arrangements for a disabled person should be on one floor. If there are steps at the entry and no other entrance at ground level, a ramp needs to be built for a wheelchair user.

Door openings can be made two inches wider by replacing hinges with special fold-back hinges which allow the door to swing back out of the way. Another inch may be obtained by removing the door jamb strips from both sides. However, cutting a larger door opening in an existing wall is a job for an experienced carpenter. If interior doors are heavy and awkward, they can be removed or replaced with flatter ones.

If major remodeling cannot be done to make a kitchen more functional, consider the following inexpensive alterations. An alternative to the standard range is a portable two-burner unit and a portable oven on a sturdy, low table. Another consideration is a microwave oven which is expensive but does save time and energy.

If a sink cannot be lowered for a seated worker, it can still be used conveniently if the worker can get closer by having leg room underneath. The cabinet doors, center post and base can be removed and hot water pipes should then be insulated. If the sink is too deep, a simple homemade wooden rack can raise the level on one side. Persons with hand or finger limitations may need a single level-type faucet control.

Non-disabled persons as well as those dependent on crutches, walker or wheelchair welcome a seated work area. If it is not possible to lower a counter top for a seated worker, other solutions include the use of:

- A small drop-leaf counter installed on a wall or cabinet.
- An open drawer of the correct height with a board placed across it, with stops to prevent it from sliding.
- A wooden table with the legs cut down to make it the correct height.
- A pull-out board for a work surface.
- A lapboard that fits securely on chair armrests.

In addition, a sturdy table on wheels with electric outlets and good quality ball bearing casters makes kitchen chores easier.

It is important to have convenient storage for frequently used equipment. Suggestions include:

- installing sliding racks or shelves inside cabinets or under wall cabinets,
- creating vertical storage by partitioning shelves and drawers,
- install pull-down bins on counters under wall cabinets,
- putting pegboards and narrow shelves on any wall space within easy reach,
- making slide-out shelves in base cabinets,
- removing doors of cabinets to create open storage, and
- making use of commercial plastic storage aids.

Making the bathroom convenient and safe is a necessity. Simple changes can add space to a compact bathroom to increase the convenient and safe use of that space. The door may be widened two or three inches as previously described. In addition, it might be possible to change the door to swing out instead of into the bathroom. Or, the base of a cabinet type sink could be removed to provide additional space and level faucet controls may facilitate the use of the sink for persons with hand limitations.

Other safety considerations in the bathroom include the use of grab bars, bathing, and toileting facilities. Grab bars should be securely attached to wall studs near the toilet, tub, or shower. For bathing, a transfer bench in the tub or a seat in the shower, and a flexible shower hose may be the only changes necessary. If the existing toilet is too low for safe transfers from a wheelchair, it may be raised with an adjustable and removable toilet seat attachment.

If the wheelchair user is still unable to use the bathroom a smaller chair on wheels could be kept outside the bathroom door. Another solution to an inaccessible bathroom is the installation of a sink and toilet in the bedroom.

Furnishings must often be adapted to special needs. For example, tables may have aprons that prevent wheelchair armrests from going underneath. One solution is simply to remove the apron from one side. Another is to build a table by purchasing a top and wooden legs and cutting the legs to the correct height. In addition, if a chair is too low, it can be raised by attaching it to a U-shaped platform.

Many innovative new products designed to make life easier are now on the market in the home building and home furnishings industries. They include automatic door openers, fingertip lighting and dimmer controls, modular storage components that snap together to build any size or shape, remote-control systems for window coverings, lights, television or small appliances, and two-way intercoms. For the kitchen there are work-saving appliances such as cordless electric sifters and one-hand jar openers.

Additional Home Design Considerations

The Blind and Visually Impaired. A blind or visually impaired person will benefit from any home designed for accessibility. Of special importance are stairs with vertical or slanted risers, the absence of thresholds and changes in floor level, handrails, accessible storage, and continuous counters in the kitchen. Some household appliances may be ordered with the controls and directions for use printed in Braille.

Additional features that are recommended include a tactile warning strip at top and bottom steps, increased illumination at all changes in floor level, guide rails along the walls, and sound-reflecting floors and walls. Color contrasts at doorways and steps aid the visually impaired.

The Deaf and Hearing Impaired. To increase functioning for those with hearing disabilities, telephones should have a visible "ring" signal and an amplifier for the hard of hearing or a recording system for the deaf. Any audible signal such as a doorbell or warning alarm must be equipped with flashing lights. Many devices, both portable and built-in, have been developed for the hearing impaired.

Summary

Designing or remodeling for accessibility need not be expensive nor difficult. With careful planning, homes can be safe, efficient and satisfactory for everyone, disabled and non-disabled alike.

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> *"Activity that is not checked by observation of what follows from it may be temporarily enjoyed. But intellectually it leads nowhere."*
>
> John Dewey

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Visions and Decisions for the '80s
Human Relationships in the Next Decade

HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION · UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

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Foreword

This issue of *Illinois Teacher* focuses on the most important concept known to woman or man, *human relationships*. In some articles we deal with the *prevention* of certain types of human relationships, e.g., those that lead to displaced homemakers or child abuse.

A psychiatrist writes on how families can be either a breeding ground for mental illness or a haven for the development of mental health. A well known textbook writer provides hints on the preparation of child care aides, and two authors offer a base for choosing content in teaching human development.

Other articles deal with children's separation experiences and the image of the homemaker's role. Both of these, and others, include suggestions for *teaching techniques*. We also include some reviews of materials you may find helpful.

There is an article on how to help us understand the teacher's liability, and, again, we offer some help on the perennial problem of time management.

Our authors come from as far away as Israel. As you read, you'll find out who they are!

We are looking in our mail for articles from you, the high school or junior high school teacher, the teacher educator or supervisor, the student teacher, the extension home economist or other adult educator, the administrator with responsibility for home economics programs. We want to help you share your good ideas!

The Editor

Introducing . . .

Dr. Linda Harriman

who joins the Home Economics Education staff at the University of Illinois for the spring semester 1981.

She has had previous teaching experience in high schools in Colorado and at the University of North Dakota, Illinois State University and as a Cooperative Extension Specialist at the University of Illinois.

She holds a B.S. degree in Home Economics Education from Colorado State University, an M.S. degree in Child and Family and a Ph.D. in Home Economics Education, both from the University of Illinois.

She belongs to Omicron Nu and Phi Delta Kappa honorary societies and a number of professional organizations including the American Home Economics Association, the American Vocational Association, the National Council on Family Relations, and the National Association for the Education of Young Children.

She is married to Tom Harriman and they have a son Douglas, 8, and a daughter, Laura, 5.

"A Ounce of Prevention . . ."

Margaret R. Dewald-Link
Assistant Professor and
Program Area Leader
ome Economics Education
and
Katherine Manley
Research Associate
both of
rginia Polytechnic Institute
and State University

Displaced homemakers are a growing segment of our population and now number in excess of four million persons. Home economics teachers, by virtue of their subject-matter, are in a unique position to contribute to the prevention of future growth in this population segment. Preventative education is proactive in nature. Being proactive means identifying problems and possible solutions before the problems actually occur.

Many of the problems with which displaced homemakers are confronted could have been identified and "solved" before the displacement occurred. If this were the case, it would be easier to consider a displaced homemaker as "in transition" rather than as being "disadvantaged". Home economics teachers could respond proactively to the problems encountered by displaced homemakers through classroom instruction focusing on the causes and ramifications of displacement, as well as possible solutions to the problems encountered when one is displaced from the homemaker role.

Homemaking is still the full-time occupation of the majority of women (with the remaining women combining homemaking and paid employment), and motherhood is the central function of their homemaking roles (U.S. Congress, 1978). However, over 7 million married women between the ages of 35 and 64 who are not in the labor force and who do not have children under 18, could be forced into the displaced homemaker realm due to spousal death, illness, separation, or divorce. Another 15 million women are out of the work force and do have children under 18. All of these women are also potential displaced homemakers.

Typically, the displaced homemaker is a woman over thirty-five years of age, who has been a homemaker, and who, because of spousal divorce, separation, illness, or death, must now support herself and her family. The skills which these women have developed over the years in their homemaker role are not generally recognized by society. When the homemaker seeks employment, she is often turned down because society did not stamp this past homemaking role as important by providing a paycheck. She is thus labeled as a person with no previous work history.

Through movies, books, television, and interpersonal relationships women are taught from an early age to prepare themselves for their primary roles of wife and mother, and then, if time permits, to prepare themselves for a secondary role in paid employment. Frequently, the secondary role is one that does not interfere with the primary role. Paid employment, for most women, means jobs dominated by females for which financial remuneration is subtantially less than for those dominated by males. Sixty percent of all working women are clerks, saleswomen, waitresses, and hairdressers. Even within these job categories women do not earn as much as men. For example, for every salesman's dollar earned, a saleswoman earns forty cents. Consequently, displacement will have a financial impact upon women who do work, as well as women who do not work. Indeed, 2.6 million women family heads in poverty must rely on society to support them with some form of public assistance because they are working at low-paying jobs (U.S. Department of Labor, 1979).

A woman who becomes a displaced homemaker loses a substantial amount of financial support. Her years of labor as a homemaker were unpaid and, therefore, she is not eligible for unemployment insurance. Additionally, if her children are over 18 years of age, she is not eligible for AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children), and if she is under the age of 62, she is too young for social security.

A lack of marketable skills and previous work experience, discrimination in employment, and her unstable labor market with only low paying and dead-end jobs, all contribute to the employment problems and poverty status of displaced homemakers. Statistically, displaced homemakers have a high probability of living in poverty:

- Only 47 percent of all divorced mothers are awarded child support, and only 21 percent collect support regularly (Burke, 1977, p. 9).
- Only one out of five divorced mothers received alimony (PEER, Inc., 1979).
- One out of every 3 families headed by women live below the poverty line compared with 1 of 18 husband-wife families (Johnson, 1978, 32) and 1 out of 9 families maintained by men who have never married or are separated, divorced, or widowed (U.S. Department of Labor).
- Two-thirds of the old people who are poor are women (PEER, Inc., 1979).

While it is true that some economists view the years of unpaid work in the home as vitally important to the economy, many others in our society view those years and that work as a period of stagnation. Furthermore, that perception is oftentimes held by the displaced homemaker herself.

Many displaced homemakers find themselves trying to support themselves and their children financially, to regain their sense of self-worth, and to maintain their interpersonal relationships at the same time that they are functioning with poverty level incomes, and feelings of abandonment, frustration, and failure. When one considers all the possible causes of displacement, most women, at some point in their lifetime, will become displaced homemakers.

- One out of three marriages end in divorce (Bomboy, 1979).
- The divorce rate is up 109 percent since 1962 (Verheyden-Hilliard, 1975, p. 34).
- There are four times as many widows as widowers. The life expectancy of women is 75 years compared to 67 years for men (Burke, 1977).
- Approximately 22% of all families are headed by women.
- Thirty-five percent of female heads of households are widowed (Bayh, 1977).

Programs to assist displaced homemakers financially, educationally, and emotionally are now scattered throughout the country. These programs are designed to help displaced homemakers recognize the skills they have developed in their homemaker role and channel their interests and abilities into career roles. In addition to supplemental financial support and counseling, many of the programs offer occupational training in non-traditional areas such as welding, carpentry, and automechanics. Even though only a small percentage of displaced homemakers are enrolled, there is no question of the need for these programs. They deal with a very real problem in a direct way. However, they are reactive in nature. The programs are designed to address the existing problems with the people who are having the problems. They are not designed to prevent the problem from occurring for others.

Prevention of Displaced Homemakers

The concept of displaced homemaker is most appropriately addressed in courses such as family living*. In these courses it is no longer feasible to address the life cycle in any way that allows students to believe that there is a set pattern in terms of adult roles. For example, the "ideal" American family is consistently portrayed as a working male, dependent female, and two children. Only seven percent of American families fit this description (Bomboy, 1979).

Teachers and counselors often treat girls and boys in stereotyped ways. Girls are taught that they must marry and have children. Boys are taught to be aggressive and to obtain a career to support a family. This "fairy tale" does occur within our society, and most girls do grow up to marry and have children. Unfortunately, it has a tragic ending for a growing number of women. Young men and women must learn that over ninety percent of the women will work in the paid labor force for a part or most of their lives. In addition, forty percent of mothers with children under the age of six are working, and fifty-one percent of all working women are married. A married woman can expect to work outside the home for 25 years, a single woman 45 years. Therefore, it is imperative that both men and women be encouraged to develop the skills, abilities, and attitudes necessary to support themselves and their families. However, few school programs treat the career preparation of females with the same seriousness and commitment given to males. Young men and women need to think in terms of careers for women.

While it is acknowledged by many that career education should begin in the elementary schools with career awareness, this does not necessarily occur in most schools. It may be necessary for a family living class to include a unit on career awareness which focuses on issues such as problem-solving, interpersonal skills, and understanding of self and others. During this unit a teacher might help students become aware of the factors which promote sex-biased employment and their own feelings related to this phenomenon. In addition, students can be helped to explore careers. Identifying specific careers, and learning about career options is a natural sequence to career awareness.

Oftentimes displaced homemakers know what they need, but they do not know where it can be obtained. Questions such as these are often asked: What are my legal rights as a woman? Where can I obtain quality child care? What kind of financial aid is available to me and how do I qualify for it? How do I place an effective complaint and to whom? Feelings of helplessness are fostered when answers to such questions are not available.

*The authors acknowledge that in some geographic areas titles may vary such as "contemporary living" or "adult roles and functions". For the purposes of this article family living is considered to be the generic title.

help them to be persistent when seeking information and services, and to know where to go for specific problems will help them to take that charge. Education does not end when formal, mandatory education ends. It is a lifelong process. Just as young people will change during each decade of their lives, so will their world. They will constantly have the need to learn to cope with it.

Until recently few people have questioned the basic desirability of what Best and Stern (1976) call the "Linear Life Plan." This plan holds that childhood and youth are for schooling, the mid-years for paid and non-paid employment, and retirement or old age for forced or voluntary leisure. However, today we have reason to believe that the changes in sex roles and family structure will be critical in the development of a more cyclic life pattern. Husbands and wives are becoming increasingly flexible in exchanging work, household duties, and child rearing responsibilities, thus freeing each spouse from the linear line patterns of the past.

In addition, the increased divorce rate is likely to have impact upon our lifetime patterns. The statistic of one in three marriages ending in divorce is often quoted. Of those marriages that do not end in divorce, some are separated. For those remaining, there is still the possiblity that they will become the primary support of themselves and their families at some point in their lifetime. Women outlive men an average of 8 years and no one can predict when a disabling accident might occur. For these women, who have been in the traditional roles, there is little experience in handling mortgages, insurance, taxes, investments, home repairs, wills, and general banking procedures. It is traditional that men "protected" women from these important activities.

It is desirable to address within family living classes topics such as those previously mentioned. In addition, introducing young men and women to the concept of lifelong learning, as it relates to preventing the problems of the displaced homemaker, can help to assure future competency in these areas. Through participation in part-time educational activities, a woman is likely to enhance her economic opportunities before she is forced into the category of displaced homemaker. By combining homemaking with educational advancement, the homemaker can get the edge on job market competition, stay abreast of new technologies in her chosen career, and thus be competitive when time comes to support herself and her family.

Educating young men and women in career awareness, and lifelong education, while helping them develop equal competencies related to daily living functions is critically important. Family living classes where this occurs will be proactive to the problems of the displaced homemaker.

Strategies within family living classes designed to help students to identify the causes and ramifications of displacement, and to develop to their fullest potential will act as preventative measures to the problems of the displaced homemaker. Each of these topics could be approached through reading and discussion; however, the need for changes in behavior and attitudes will need to be addressed. Interaction with displaced homemakers and societal agencies is imperative for such a program. Possible strategies might include:

1. Viewing the film "Who Remembers Mama*" and discussing the problems identified in the film and the feelings evoked.
2. Playing the simulation game "Cinderella Minus Prince**" and discussing feelings when dealing with agencies designed to help with specific problems.
3. Identifying a panel of displaced homemakers (one each: divorced, separated, widowed, disabled spouse), having them describe their situations before and after displacement and their problems associated with displacement. Students' participation may be encouraged by having some serve as a "questioner panel."
4. Visiting a program designed for displaced homemakers and identifying the support services they offer, their funding source, how they advertise their program, and their strengths and limitations.
5. Inviting married couples to class who are identified as having contemporary views of adult roles and having them discuss how they manage resources and careers.
6. Having students interview single heads of households and identifying their management practices.
7. Visiting community based organizations and compiling a booklet with names, locations, and services. The booklet might be distributed throughout the school.
8. Conducting in-depth sessions on money management including guest speakers from banking, real estate, home repair services, estate planning, insurance, tax, and investment specialists.
9. Encouraging *all* students to open checking and savings accounts and discussing advantages and disadvantages of each.

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*Available from Women in Communications, Inc., 5215 Homer St., Dallas TX 75206. $550.00. 3 day rental, $75.00.

**See References.

13. Working with the school guidance department to administer sex role attitude surveys and career interest inventories. Students could be encouraged to identify career ladders appropriate for their abilities and interests and the means by which they could pursue the careers. Interviewing at least one person in the career could be helpful.

10. Having students interview elderly widows and widowers on matters related to management of their resources of time, energy, money, etc.

11. Inviting a representative from the League of Women Voters to class to discuss the local political system and the citizen's role in it.

12. Having a carefully selected attorney discuss the legal rights of women when married and single, and ways in which women can be protected in instances of divorce, separation, spousal death, or disablement.

Developing awareness and changing attitudes and behaviors are time consuming. They also require empathy on the part of the teacher and a clear commitment to the importance of doing so. To teach *about* the displaced homemaker is only a beginning. To help students develop the competencies to prevent the problem is the ultimate goal.

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A note from the International Federation of Home Economics Congress in Manila . . .

"Whatever the area of supporting services involved, home economists' objectives should be to teach people to assess their capabilities and to be self-supporting; to develop skills that could generate income; to be knowledgeable about a whole range of preventative issues; to create an awareness that the quality of life is dependent on good management of available resources; and to educate people to refrain from equating material success with development."

Quoted from Norma Rose, Past-President of the Association of Teachers of Domestic Science in Britain (who attended the Congress) in the October 1980 issue of HOUSECRAFT, The Journal of ATDS.

The Family, For Better or Worse

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Since Rene Spitz' historic article, "Hospitalism", we have continued to assume that a maternal caretaker is by definition always the best. In fact, loving, consistent and non-stressful caretakers *are* best, and the biologic bond often allows more of the tolerance and perseverance necessary in a good parent. But a reasonable surrogate is certainly preferable to a maladaptive parent. Just like some divorces are "made in heaven," so are some placements of children away from the biologic parents. The fact of the matter is that being an effective parent is not an instinctual or genetically acquired skill but one learned out of experience in our own modeling of our parents. Thus, maladaptive as well as positive parenting becomes a transmitted phenomenon, not via chromosomes but by example. Parents' skills also assume other later experiences, cognition, and general balance and maturity.

When we examine rising statistics of child abuse, of neglect, of incestual rape, of Department of Children and Family Services interventions, of child suicide (rising more rapidly than any other age group), of rising rates of misdemeanors and even felonies committed by minors, of gang violence, of runaways, of drug and alcohol addiction in children, of violence in schools—these and the many perhaps lesser but personally disturbing experiences we all share as parents—must inevitably lead any honest person to ask him/herself: What makes a good family? A good parent? How do these evolve? How can I improve? And most distressing of all, When is *our* family doing more damage than good to our children?

Perhaps the best way to begin to look at the question of what makes for good and bad parenting is first to examine the *needs* of the child. These needs, of course, depend somewhat on the child's age.

In infancy, the child's primary need is nurture—an adequate dietary intake for its body, and love—soothing words, hugs and caresses for its mental development. The more ambivalent these gifts are, the more problem for the child. I've often heard, in my practice, a mother inadvertently indicting herself with the phrase, "my baby won't let me hold him close." When my own children were infants, I noticed that on weekends when I ran errands, drove here and there, rode my bicycle, did bookwork, I used to tie the kids in a Japanese-type cloth carrier that held their heads up under my chin and their bodies close on my chest. (Freud spoke of "penis envy" in women, but I suspect there's also "womb envy" in men.) At any rate, wet or hungry, the children used to ride around for incredible numbers of hours in this fashion in perfect contentment!

In later childhood, the primary need is growth and exploration of the child's world. S/he needs to acquire not only the 3 R's but peer and social skills, self-confidence and the child's sense of his own identity as an individual, apart from the parent. Pretty obviously, a common parent error at this stage then is over-protection, perfectionism, or denigrating—any of which discourage the child's free exploration. It's regrettable how frequently the error of "contingent parenting" occurs, a situation in which acceptance is felt by the child as being contingent on performance, with the later result of lack of self-esteem, general insecurity, guilt, and a tendency to depression, because of a constant feeling that however well one does, it is never good enough to earn complete approval. It's a fine line but certainly possible to give the child a feeling that you are pleased when s/he succeeds, but that you *always* love him, win or lose.

Another parent error is the frequent misconception that children should "admire" their parents and that admiration comes about by parents never showing the kids their faults or weaknesses and emphasizing only their successes. From this posture comes the child's reluctance to accept him/herself when s/he fails; some may even be reluctant to take any chance at all. Real love implies comfort and a feeling that the loved "object" is human and warm. We might *worship gods*, but in a psychological sense, we don't love them.

I remember vividly one of the most glorious days of my own childhood. I was about ten and, exploring a store room in our basement, discovered in an old bureau drawer a packet of my father's old school report cards. Incredibly, they were not all A's as I somehow had assumed, and I felt singularly freed of a burden.

The task of adolescence is "overthrowal" of adult authority and the assumption of the adolescent's own controls. Unfortunately, the young person often realizes s/he *desires* but is not comfortably *able* to assume self-control, and it is for this reason that adolescents are so peer conscious, tending to identify with group fads and uniforms in an effort to achieve the support of group identity.

Perhaps the most difficult transition for any responsible parent is to adjust from the role of "authoritarian" who illustrates his/her concern for the welfare of the younger child by setting consistent and reasonable limits (which incidentally reduces the young child's anxieties concerning impulse control), to the role of adolescent "adviser" who discusses his/her opinions of realities, and potential "natural consequences" in the community but always ends the advice with the stated or implied phrase, "That's what I think, but you're old enough now to make up your own mind." Needless to say, we all, as parents, are sorely tempted to assume positions of control over adolescents (or even spouses for that matter) in an effort to "protect them" from harm (by virtue of the assumption, of course, that *we* have a corner on the ultimate wisdom of how one *should* act). It is perhaps well to examine why the taking of this godlike position with those experienced enough to make their own decisions) inevitably backfires. *First*, we delay or inhibit the child's development of self-control and self-confidence by fostering prolonged dependency. *Second*, we undermine ability to make choices, to take chances comfortably, and tend to create guilt and anxiety by implying that Mama and Daddy are always sitting in judgment and that even as an adult, love and acceptance are dependent on doing things "right enough"; (that is, again, the error of "contingent parenting").

On the other hand, we must be careful to allow adolescents (and even younger children in many circumstances) to carry the burden of "natural consequences." For example, having acted as "adviser" re the consequences of drug abuse, of delinquent acts, etc., we must be willing not only to allow the older child to make his/her own decisions, but also, then, to deal subsequently with the consequences without trying to "bail them out." I don't know how many times I've seen delinquents or older criminals whose pattern is a result, in part at least, of well-meaning parents who were more concerned with "protecting the child" from legal consequences than in teaching a respect for laws. One might wonder whether these parents are *really* motivated to protect themselves and their own community image at the expense of conditioning their children to expect that the law will never hold them accountable.

Third, since the adolescent is trying to "overthrow" authority and find his/her own limits, there's a danger that over-control may stimulate more rebellion with the result that we create a "self-fulfilling prophecy" and the adolescent *must* act in a manner that we prohibit in order to avoid the feeling of being subservient, spineless, and in a sense "giving in to the enemy," (or as the classic Freudians would put it, accepting symbolic "castration").

Fourth, when we try too forcibly to exert control over the adolescent-age child and overlook his/her need to learn self-control, we inadvertently put the child in a bind in which the choice is to surrender *or* to become covert (a "secret person") and thereby not only deny the parent the chance to be an effective advisor (by really knowing what their child's conflicts, feelings, and actions are) but also the child's guilt and anxiety level rise as s/he carries out deceptions and works around parental rules. And in the process, identification and modeling (the major effective roles a parent has) are diminished, since it is difficult to model someone who is stupid enough for you to effectively manipulate and "con", and whom you are afraid to "share" yourself with and be "real."

We might ask why it appears that there is such a variance today in families between the standards of adults and adolescents, why identification and modeling seem so often to be breaking down, and why today's adolescents seem in such conflict. I suppose the generation gap has existed in every age, but certainly there are some recent factors, by-products of our culture, that must be exaggerating the dilemma of adolescents in seeking to identify with us and still be faithful to themselves.

Technology, women's liberation, inflationary pressures—all result in less and less focus on the home as a center for social interaction. Both parents often work (if not by necessity, then by choice, and sometimes multiple jobs are even demanded), and there is less need for lengthy meal preparation, canning, etc., which in the past served as a focus of identification by children with mother. Home repair is becoming more often a job for specialists and no longer serves as in the past as a focus for the children to join and relate with father.

Even the traditional gender models are becoming confused. Who works outside and who stays at home? And regardless of our respect for the autonomy of each sex, we need to ask what happens to the child when neither Mother nor Father wishes to be "burdened, domesticated and saddled" with the needs of a home and children?

Even the extended family—grandparents, aunts and uncles, cousins—who used to stand as bolster and back-up sources of identification for children, should parents for some reason be less accessible, has fallen prey to our modern technological transportation system that makes it so easy to travel and relocate, and it is rare anymore to see extended families living close together. There even seems to be an unspoken stigma, an implied "immaturity", if one hasn't "cut the apron strings" or been bold enough to "strike out for oneself" and "seek new horizons."

Other traditional support systems that used to offer sources of identification—the neighborhood culture, the school, the church—have similarly fallen by the wayside, victims of "progress" to apartment complexes and urbanization where no one knows (let alone cares) much about neighbors, where schools have become largely impersonal factories with overburdened teachers and problematic budgets, and churches seem more dedicated to fund drives and imposing architecture than to people, and clergy seem to have forgotten that *religion* stems from the Greek *re-ligare*, "to bind together."

Even our country's leaders in recent years seem to be thwarting the efforts of young people to find symbols of integrity, strength, and incorruptibility with which they can identify. It's a great mistake to underestimate or "talk down" to children, let alone adolescents. They are well aware that it's difficult to admire and identify with an adult world that hypocritically preaches to have the answers, that seeks to control young prople, and then illustrates racial and sexual bigotry, ecologic neglect, profligate economic indulgence at the expense of future generations, and condemns drug use in teenagers while so conspicuously abusing alcohol, tranquilizers and tobacco themselves.

For all these varied, but psychodynamically related reasons, we are today seeing children with little respect for parents. The result is increased rebellion and defiance of authority in general, increased anxiety in youth as they try, alone, to maintain their own controls, as well as rising stress and depression in parents.

Is the family a good or bad influence? Ideally, through a positive family structure, or at least the availability of benevolent and identification-prompting adult models, future generations *can* be equipped to succeed as constructive and happy adults. My sixteen-year-old daughter summed it all up when she tacked a cartoon on our refrigerator that shows a little girl in p.j.'s kneeling at her bedside saying, ". . . and please, God, help Mom and Dad get their shit together." Hopefully, if our family system as we know it is to survive, we will.

The ABC's of A Capable Child Care Aide*

What are the personal qualities you as a home economics teacher will expect your students to develop as they work and study to become child care aides? Students can use the ABC's of a Capable Child Care Aide to check off personal qualities achieved as they progress toward becoming effective and responsible in their work with children.

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If you are a capable child care aide, you will be:

A. ALERT to all children for whom you are responsible and to the tasks needing to be done
B. BRIGHT, a fast thinker and a sound "reasoner"
C. CALM, not easily flustered when conflicts or competing tasks arise
D. DEPENDABLE AND DISCIPLINED, knowing and being able to follow rules and directions
E. ENTHUSIASTIC about working with children and parents
F. FUN LOVING, enjoying children and their little personalities, laughing easily with, but not at them
G. GENEROUS with your love, ideas, and energy, sharing these readily with children, parents, and co-workers
H. HEALTHY in mind and body, having the strength to carry on the work for the hours required and still being able to maintain a happy spirit
I. INITIATING activities that need to be done and doing them happily without prodding or pressure
J. JUST and fair to all children, parents, and co-workers regardless of sex, race, religion, income level, age, size, or handicapping condition
K. KNOWLEDGEABLE about children, families, and child care centers, knowing when it is wise to say, "I don't know, *but* I'll find out."
L. LOVING to children in a growth-producing way
M. MATURE for your age and experience and able to be a responsible adult

N. NEAT and clean in appearance, dressing comfortably and appropriately for the work
O. ORGANIZED on the job and at home so needed work gets done with a minimum of strain or confusion
P. PUNCTUAL in arriving for the job and in keeping activities on schedule as required
Q. QUICK to respond to needs of children, parents, and staff
R. RESOURCEFUL, able to figure out solutions to new problems and to find creative uses for materials
S. STRONG in body, having stamina for the required work
T. THOUGHTFUL of others, seeing children's point of view and responding to their feelings and needs
U. UPSTANDING in citizenship
V. VENTURESOME in seeking and trying out new ideas and new approaches to working with children
W. WITTY, using humor in dealing with children and others, making the center a happy place to live
X. (E)XCITED about the future and optimistically looking ahead
Y YEARNING to be helpful to others, not self-serving
Z. ZEALOUS for children's rights and causes, speaking out for action and legislation that will improve the lives of children.

These suggestions will be particularly helpful to students who will be assigned to observe and assist in child care centers as part of required course work—especially in those courses that many schools call occupational or vocational.

*This article is adapted from a chapter in my high school book, *Parenting and Teaching Young Children*, McGraw-Hill, 1980.

Strategies for Smargorpnoitacudetnerap

Editor's Note:
These strategies for parent education can *also* be useful to high school teachers who work with the parents of the children in their child development "play schools" or with high school students who are parents.

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Just as a writer* needs to capture the attention of the reader, so must the parent educator capture the interest and support of participants in parenting groups. In an introductory activity, used in a course at Bowling Green State University, students are asked to create their own saying to *It's Apparent You're a Parent*. Bill Keene (1971), in his Family Circus Book, cleverly portrays parenting by illustrating such situations as "It's apparent you're a parent when . . .

your predominant perfume is peanut butter;"
you spend Halloween crouching behind the neighbor's bushes;"
you wake up with a Teddy Bear."

Sharing these verbally in small groups establishes a warm, friendly climate as the experiences related reveal personal moments of childhood. Artistic students may illustrate the sayings on posters or mobiles.

Creating a "light" atmosphere at the beginning of a program can help people enjoy the humor of family life and parent-child interactions and establish a commonality that relaxes.

Another activity, called "The Squares Game", promotes sharing among students who are working in groups. This experiment in cooperation places the learner in a situation in which s/he must function as part of the group rather than dominating or circumventing it. If students follow the rules of the assignment described below, they must function as a group with all students participating equally.

The Squares Game
Divide class into groups of five. Students who are left over may serve as monitors to see if rules are being adhered to and as observers. A separate kit of materials must be prepared as described in Figure 1 for each group of five people. Make puzzle pieces from construction paper or oak tag.

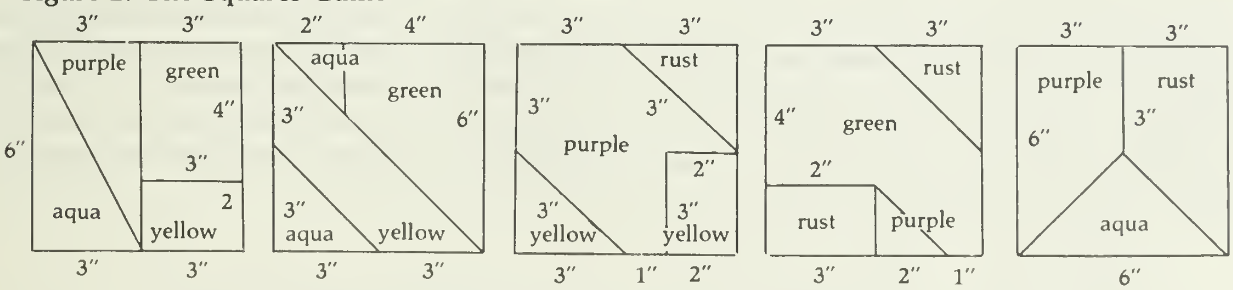
Each person in the class is assigned to use geometric shapes to make a square 6 inches per side. Each person receives an envelope with 3 or 4 pieces all of one color. The shapes in any one envelope are inappropriate or insufficient to complete the task. As a result students must exchange pieces.

There is only one way in which all five squares in each group may be completed.

Students must adhere to the following rules:

1. No talking at all.
2. No student may take another student's pieces.
3. Any student may give his pieces to another student but . . .
4. No student may touch the puzzle pieces of another student and do the puzzle for him.
5. No signals are allowed.
6. The first group done wins, but all groups must complete the task.
7. Do not damage pieces.

Figure 1: The Squares Game



Return pieces of same color to envelope.

Value Clarification Exercises

Helping people in parent education clarify values can be made stimulating by providing activities, and parent educators need a repertoire of such activities. Two simple activities likely to be enjoyed by all age groups are as follows:

*The technique used in the title to capture your attention is an example of the earliest Greek method of writing called boustrophedon, or "as the ox plows." It is described as writing left to right on one line, right to left on the next, and so on, without separation of words or any punctuation.

1. **"ING" Name Tags**
   (or "able" such as lovable; or "ful" such as trustful; or "ist" such as realist).
   The parent educator provides paper and pins. Students are asked to write their first name on the paper. Then they are told to add 3-6 "ing" words which tell something about themselves. Everyone, including the parent educator moves around and shares with others the choice of words. While students get acquainted through this activity, they more importantly are openly announcing something about themselves that reveals personality characteristics which play a role in their parenting behavior.

2. **The "COAT OF ARMS" Game**
   Another activity that can be used for self-awareness is the Coat of Arms game. The parent educator provides a model, as shown in Figure 2, of a Coat of Arms which the participant copies. Participants are told to make a picture, symbol, or sign in each of the first five sections. This can be private information only understood by the student. The ideas to express are as follows:

   a. your greatest success
   b. your family's greatest success
   c. something someone can do for you or with you to make you feel good
   d. your greatest failure
   e. If you had only 1 year to live, what would be your one wish?

   In section six, students are to write three words that they would want others to use to describe them when they are gone. The participants self-analyze the meaning of what their Coat of Arms reveals to them.

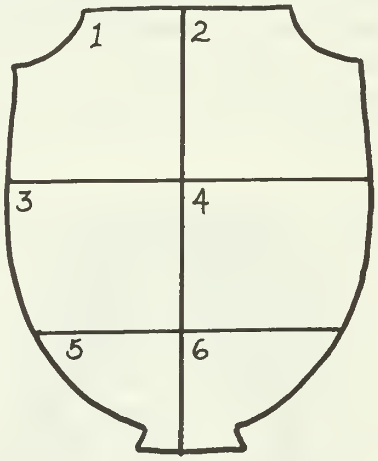


Figure 2: The Coat of Arms

Philosophies of Parenting

The experiential development of parent educators is based on strategies for implementing a philosophy of parenting, taking into consideration the ages and needs of the participants. Therefore, it is essential that beginning parent educators become acquainted with the major child rearing approaches and then participate in simulated programs that exemplify the various philosophies.

Using the text *Six Approaches to Child Rearing* by D. Eugene Mead (1976) as a basis for knowledge about parent education philosophies and methods, the students at Bowling Green are required to participate in workshops which examine the cognitive-developmental approach, the existential-phenomenological approach, the behavioral approach, and the socio-teleological approach. A workshop assignment is given, and in small groups the students are required to plan a three-hour parent education program. The following specifications must be met:

1. Prepare an invitation or announcement.
2. At least four parents are actually invited and attend.
3. All presenters indicate their role to the professor in a thirty minute conference in advance.
4. All class members must become active participants during the workshop.
5. There is at least one visual related to the general topic.
6. There must be at least three activities used during the workshop.
7. An evaluation device incorporating a pre-assessment and a post-assessment is used.
8. An outline that lists the strengths and weaknesses of that approach is given to each participant at the close of the workshops.
9. An oral summary delineating the major components of the approach must be included in the program.
10. All presenters must self-evaluate their participation and the learning they gained from their involvement.

Facilitators are available for each of the approaches; e.g., for the cognitive development approach, several current infant stimulation books that have various activities and directions for making homemade toys and using a commercial toy lending library. In the simulated cognitive development workshops, the core of the program generally is making three different toys for specified developmental child stages. The existential-phenomenological approach has two major resources: Thomas Gordon's book on *P.E.T.* (Parent Effectiveness Training) (1974) and *Liberated Children, Liberated Parents* (1975) by Adele Faber and Elaine Mazlish. These materials provide the basis for two different workshops that focus on similar skills in the communications area of parenting. For the behavioral approach, many references are available. Emphasis in these workshops is on learning about reward systems and observing and graphing behavior. Dr. Dinkmyer's *S.T.E.P.* (Systematic Training in Effective Parenting) (1977) kit is used as the major source for actualizing the socio-teleological approach. Since it already has colorful charts and posters as well as taped cassette vignettes that present parent-child situations for reaction, the student becomes exposed to another way to organize parent workshops.

Evaluation

Students are asked to conceptualize what makes an effective parent educator at the completion of the course. Some representative responses are as follows:

The Most Important Thing About Being an Effective Parent Educator is

1. . . . *compassion.* If the parent educator is compassionate toward parents who come to learn about being more effective parents, they will be more open and responsive and more eager to learn and apply knowledge learned.
2. . . . *personality and flexibility.* A parent educator must realize that parents are already established in their ways and probably cannot change drastically in a short period of time. Flexibility is needed to meet the parents' needs but also to add new knowledge. Parents need to know that the parent educator is genuinely concerned with their welfare and the family unit.
3. . . . *to know what you are doing.* It makes the parent educator confident, able to experiment and be flexible in trying out new techniques, and to relate well with the parents.
4. . . . *to institute a comfortable atmosphere.* Individuals tend to be more responsive to the program where warmth is provided and encouraged.
5. . . . *understanding people.* If you can't understand someone and his/her values and ideas, you cannot help that person. An educator has to be open-minded and meet the needs of the group, to be flexible in planning, and to know the materials.
6. . . . *being able to communicate effectively.* Parents can see that you are not trying to be superior to them, but mainly are helping by giving them alternative ways to approach child rearing problems. Growth is facilitated when the parent feels at ease when discussing personal views and problems in the group, when the parent educator is able to communicate a feeling of concern and realizes the capabilities and strengths of all parents involved.
7. . . . *helping parents recognize their own true feelings about child rearing without imposing value judgments on them.*
8. . . . *educating parents on a variety of issues such as communication skills, child behavior, child abuse, and learning in the home.* Parent education is for all parents—middle class, traditional nuclear family, single parents, under-privileged, young or old, male or female.

All the aforementioned comments provide support for an introductory parent education course in an experiential format that exemplifies the type of skill and knowledge necessary for the parent educator to function effectively in that professional role. Feedback from students who enter professional careers where these skills are put into practice also strongly reinforces the belief that there is an experiential development of parent educators that pre-service education can provide.

Possibly a corollary of Bill Keane's idea for parent educators is "It's Apparent You're A Parent Educator When . . .

you provide a relaxed atmosphere;
you can help people clarify their values;
you can present alternative child rearing approaches, and skills, and
you can self-evaluate your techniques."

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A Perspective on Teaching Human Development

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What do students of the eighties need to know about human development? The decade of George Orwell's *1984* promises to be a challenging time for individuals and families, for the societal conditions that influence our lives on a daily basis are complex and often filled with crises. If students are to develop the ability to act on the conditions that affect them and their families, teachers will need to provide meaningful learning experiences related to development. It will be necessary to examine possible content carefully to determine *what to teach*, and *how to teach it*.

Many changes have occurred in recent years that will need to be considered when planning an updated human development curriculum. The body of knowledge about human development has acquired considerable depth and breadth, for research has helped us understand the complexity of the developmental processes to a greater degree. This is particularly evident as the developmental processes are expressed throughout the life cycle. The family and society have also evolved, creating various factors which exercise serious influence on our lives. We do not comprehend the full impact resulting from changing forms and life styles of the family, the role of the community, or the development of technology. There are numerous other factors to be studied as well.

Constructing a Conceptual Framework for the Study of Human Development

Given the complexity of human development and the urgency of needs related to this substantive area of home economics, students need to construct a frame of reference about *development* and the conditions that influence it. The topics of study and the means used to study them must be selected on the basis of their importance to the exploration and understanding of the impacts involved. Students may then be able to determine what should be done to create conditions, family and societal, that are beneficial to the development of people.

As teachers identify possible questions and topics within the area of human development, it can be helpful to follow a systematic process which progressively delineates a conceptual framework of subject matter. Figure 1 illustrates one such model. Figure 2 gives an example of a conceptual framework

Figure 1. A Process for Developing a Conceptual Framework

Step I: Identify the major question for study. →

Step II: Identify and examine relevant beliefs and assumptions, and delineate the scope of the study in the form of a statement.

Step III:
Analyze the statement resulting from **Step II** and identify the major concepts for study. List separately for subsequent examination.

→ **Step IV:**
Identify the broad questions that would need to be answered in order to develop understanding of the concept(s) described in **Step III**.

→ **Step V:**
Identify topics that could be studied or associated inquiry skills in order to provide a knowledge base for answering each of the questions in **Step IV**.

→ **Step VI:**
Design specific instructional strategy to develop a knowledge base for the selected topics from **Step V**.

Figure 2: An example of a conceptual framework in human development

What Are The Current Emphases In Human Development?	Development is the total process of change in individual form, structure, and complexity of functioning that is influenced by personal and environmental factors interacting over a period of time.

Concept	*Sample of related questions**	*Possible topics for HE study**
1. Development is the total process of change.	a. In what ways do individuals change? b. What processes are involved in change? c. What happens within each process? d. How do the processes interrelate?	(1) Physical, social, emotional, cognitive and moral developmental processes (2) Development of the "whole" person (3) Personal and social competence (4) Importance of play (5) Importance of attachment
2. Although the sequences of development are the same for all persons, differences in rate, style, and form are important.	a. What differences can be identified? b. Why do differences occur? c. What is the importance of individual differences in human development? d. What should be done to facilitate appreciation of diversity?	(1) Intercultural similarities and differences (2) Interpersonal similarities and differences (3) Effects of prejudice and discrimination (4) Adaptive behaviors
3. Development is influenced by the interaction of personal and environmental factors.	a. What are the individual's developmental needs? b. What characteristics or experiences *help* the individual meet developmental needs? *hinder*? c. What should individual family members, the family, and society do to provide experiences that facilitate development?	(1) Naturalistic methods of study (2) Reciprocity in relationships, (parent-child, parent-parent, child-child, parent-parent-child interactions) (3) Parenting (fathering, mothering, grandparenting) (4) Development within the family and community (alternative life styles, family support systems, caregiving) (5) Effects of stress (6) Effects of roles on personal identity (7) Impact of technology
4. Development occurs throughout the life span.	a. What happens at various ages that affects development?	(1) Development of all family members (parents are people, too) (2) Aging (3) Influence of historical, family, and individual time on development

*NOTE: In identifying the questions and topics shown in this example, no attempt has been made to develop a comprehensive list, nor to correlate the topics to specific questions.

derived from the use of the model. The example, which was shared with secondary home economics teachers attending human development inservice workshops in Wisconsin during the fall of 1979, illustrates the basic steps in the process.

The first procedure in the selection of subject matter is the formulation of a major orienting question. The conceptual framework shown in Figure 2 is developed from the question, "What are the current emphases in the study of human development?" Other questions could also be used, such as "What should be included in the study of human development at the secondary level?" or "What should be considered when studying the development of family members?"

After identifying a question that will be the central focus, the developer then examines the inherent meanings of the subject area involved by defining its broad characteristics. The statement in the example, "Development is . . ." provides a philosophical and conceptual reference for uncovering the layers of meaning inherent in the major question.

Portions of the resulting statement are then analyzed separately. This is accomplished by first determining the questions that would be necessary to answer in order to understand a particular portion of the statement, and then by identifying topics or concepts that could be studied to provide background for answering the question.

There are several advantages in identifying subject matter in this way:

1. A broad scope of subject matter can be identified for use as a resource base and a frame of reference.
2. The teacher can select a manageable portion of the scope of subject matter to teach.
3. Related topics can be focused to build a concept over a period of time while also providing opportunity to study relevant problems in an appropriate context.
4. Although it is likely there will be omissions, topics can be identified that will probably present a more integrated approach than would be possible without an organizing element.
5. Topics that are not directly relevant are likely to be screened out, thus prioritizing the content.
6. Questions of various levels of complexity/and difficulty can be developed.

The conceptual framework, like a household budget, can provide important guidance in determining appropriate actions—in this case, *what to teach*.

Using the Conceptual Framework to Build a Teaching Strategy

After the conceptual framework has been developed, the teacher selects the questions or topics that are most important to study, perhaps based on the following criteria:

1. Does this question or topic represent a complex issue or ongoing family concern?
2. Does this question or topic give opportunity for examining the family in a societal context related to an issue or concern?
3. Does this question or topic allow for the examination of the reciprocal impacts of the individual, family and society?
4. Can this question or topic be analyzed from several perspectives?
5. Does this question or topic allow for diversity of thinking?

The final step provides the link to classroom experiences that could be used to develop understanding of the concepts, for after the selection of important questions and topics a teaching strategy could be planned.

In extending development to the final step of the model, several examples have been designed relating to the third concept in the framework: *Development is influenced by the interaction of personal and environmental factors*. Topics included are reciprocity in relationships, development within the family and community, effects of roles on personal identity, and the impact of technology on development. The outline of learning experiences could be organized in a variety of ways depending on teaching strategy utilized. For example, the suggested student experiences could be used individually or incorporated into a mini unit or learning station.

Summary

Development of a conceptual framework can be accomplished most effectively if a systematic process is used. By formulating broad questions as orientation to a scope of possible content, teachers can readily determine important concepts to be included. Extension of the process can provide a basis for building sequenced learning experiences that are related to specific topics within the realm of the questions.

Learning experiences related to selected topics in human development

Reciprocity In Relationships

- Let's take a trip back in time. Try to remember the most significant positive event which occurred between you and your parent/parents/guardian. Then try to envision the most significant negative event which occurred between you and your parent/parents/guardian.

  Why were these events significant?
  What influence have these events had on your life?

  Keep a log of your interaction with your parent/parents/guardian for one week. Identify whether the interaction was positive or negative. If the interaction was negative, how could it have been changed to be more positive.

- Choose a chance card describing a family profile. After reading the chance card discuss the questions:

  What factors within the family may influence the family relationships?

  Are these factors positive or negative?

  What impact might <u>work</u> have on relationships within the family?

  How might the conditions within the family be changed in order to maximize growth for all individuals?

  Further complete the chance card by writing a scenario of what the family may be like 5 years from now.

> Kathy and Mike have been married seven years. They don't have any children. Both are career oriented. Both Kathy's and Mike's parents feel they should have children soon.

> Jean and John have three children who are 30, 25, and 23 years of age. All children are living away from home. Recently John's father, 86, moved in with Jean and John to live.

> Sue is a single parent with 3 children ages 4, 5, and 7. She has a job as a company executive. Her ex-husband is an alcoholic who is unemployed. Sue's parents live 700 miles away from her.

> Ted and Alice have seven children ranging from one year old to seventeen years old. Ted works as a welder and Alice works as a part-time nurse.

- Using newspapers and magazines, find articles, cartoons, etc. which depict different types of relationships.

  Discuss: *How do various environments affect relationships with others?*
  What factors within society affect relationships?
  How could conditions within society be changed in order to improve relationships?
  What meaning do the situations chosen have for your life?

- Interpret what each set of arrows on the right has to do with relationships:
  Consider the following questions:

  (1) ———→ ←———
  (2) ———→ ———→
  (3) ←——— ←———

  If the arrows on the right represent relationships that a person may have with another, in your opinion what does each set of arrows represent?
  Sketch arrows that represent the "ideal" relationship. Why?
  How do your actions affect your relationships with others?
  How do others' actions affect their relationships with you?
  What specific factors influence your relationship with others?
  Depending on the age of the person, how might the arrows change? (i.e., parent, child)

- Listen to the record "Cat's in the Cradle" or another popular song of parenting. React to the following questions:

  What factors influenced the father's relationship with his son?
  How did the son affect the relationship with his father?
  What is the main message in the song?
  What implications does this have for parenting?

Development Within The Family And Community

- Make a college or mural of photographs, magazine pictures, words, etc. to illustrate the needs of individuals at various ages. Include infancy, childhood, adolescence, early, middle, and later adulthood.

  Consider: *How do needs change as people grow older?*
  How do families help individuals of all ages meet their needs?
  Identify ways society helps individuals meet their needs.

- Complete the chart below to show what services are provided to individuals and families within the community. List the various age groups aided by the service as well as the type of service provided to the individual and/or family. Visits to the agency and/or interviews with its leaders can provide information.

Community Service	Age Group Served	Type of Service Provided

- Invite a panel of people from the community representing various age groups to discuss their lifestyle and family situation. Also include how they have utilized various community services.

- Interview people of various age groups including children, teenagers, adults, and elderly.

  Ask questions such as:

  What activities do you enjoy doing?
  With whom do you like to spend your time?
  What type of music do you like?
  What do you like to read?
  What concerns do you have?
  What needs do you have?
  What does work mean to you?

  As a group, determine whether activities, music, etc. change with age. Are there any similarities among the age groups? Differences among the age groups?

- Describe ways society has discriminated against various cultures (i.e., Cubans, Puerto Ricans, Blacks, etc.). Find newspaper or magazine articles to illustrate recent incidences of discrimination.

  Discuss: *How does discrimination affect people within the family and community?*
  What stereotypes do we have of various cultures? For example: Chinese, Iranians, Boat People, etc.
  What instances of discrimination have you observed?
  What should be done in the future regarding discrimination?

Impact of Technology on Human Development

- Complete the following open ended questions:

  If everything could be recycled . . .
  If a computer made books and magazines obsolete . . .
  If a mobile robot, would vacuum, do laundry, play games, etc. . . .

If you would drive your car on an electric trolley line . . .

If there were a drug that could make people immortal . . .

If people traveled by space shuttles . . .

If electrodes were implanted in people's brains to make them robot like . . .

Choose any of the above statements and write a paragraph and/or draw sketches to expand your idea of the open ended questions. Include reactions to the following questions:

What impact will this have on people and families?

How might this influence the lifestyle of families?

What might our society be like if this really happened?

- Search in the library for magazine articles, newspaper articles, and/or books relating to future technology. Write a short report summarizing at least one source. Include a reaction to the following questions by giving an oral or written report:

  How has it come to be that we may have this technological development in the future?

  How will this technological development affect us, our families, our community, our society?

- Design a product for the future. Draw a sketch or make a model of the project.

  Consider: *How would this product change people's lives?*

  What negative effects might it have on families?

  What conditions within society affect the development of products?

- Imagine you're a caveman. Pretend you are entering a time machine and it is now the year 2025.

  Develop a skit which will portray the experience of the caveman in the year 2025. Place special emphasis on technological developments which the caveman may encounter.

- Using available resources (cardboard boxes, pipe cleaners, paint, markers, glitter, construction paper, etc.) design a robot—the man of the future.

  Discuss: *What qualities should a robot possess?*

  How does a robot develop competency as a person?

  What would life be like if we depended on robots?

  What types of tasks should a robot perform?

Effects of Roles on Personal Identity

- Complete the chart below regarding roles of various types of families. List various roles family members may play within the family type.

Type of Family	Roles of Women	Roles of Men	Roles of Children
Single Parent			
Single Person			
Elderly Couple			
Nuclear Family			
Unrelated Family			
Extended Family			

- Think about where you have been and what you have done the last 24 hours. Identify using sketches or words, the various roles you have played during this time period.

Discuss: *How do the roles you play affect you as a person?*
Why do you play the roles you do?
How can roles have a negative effect on your development?
How can roles have a positive effect on your development?
How do the roles you play today, differ from those of 5 years ago?
What roles might you be playing 10 years from now?
Compare the roles you play with that of people around you. Are there similarities? Differences?
How do the roles you play affect other people?

- Observe various people you encountered today. Keep a log or journal of people's activities within school and outside of school. Identify various roles others play. Decide whether the roles are traditional or nontraditional.

- Fill in the chart below by listing roles of various people in the past and present, and predicting the future.

Roles	PAST 19th Century or earlier	PRESENT 20th Century	FUTURE 21st Century
of Women			
of Men			
of Children			

Discuss: *How have roles changed?*
Why have roles changed?
How do roles affect the development of people?
How has it come to be that we have the roles we do?
What impact does society have on role playing?
What should roles be like in the future?

Divide the class into 3 groups. Have each group take a different time period (i.e., past, present, future). Play roles of various people during the assigned time.

- Observe a television program. Complete the matrix below by listing roles portrayed by various characters. Check whether the roles shown illustrate traditional or nontraditional roles.

Consider: *How are roles of males and females depicted by television?*
Is this depiction accurate?
How do media influence the roles we play?

Character name	*Roles*	*Traditional*	*Non-traditional*

What is Child Abuse? Can Home Economics Education Help Prevent It?

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Child abuse has been identified by leaders in Home Economics Education as the number one social problem which Home Economics can help solve.[1] Adapting from Halperin (1979), one could define child abuse as any act or omission of an act which hinders or prevents the child's development physically, socially and psychologically.

Child abuse is not new in western societies. Bakan (1971) and Radbill (1974) cite examples of child abuse in the Bible dating back to the time of Abraham, Moses and Joseph. Physicians found it difficult to identify injuries which were peculiarly related to child abuse until after the development of the X-ray in this century. Since the 1950's and the early 1960's the problem of child abuse has become generally known by the public (Radbill, 1974).

Incidence of Child Abuse

The incidence of child abuse is hard to ascertain due to the ways in which it is reported. Bakan (1971) and Smith (1975) agree that the incidence is between 200,000 and 250,000 cases each year. Some researchers feel that this number is too low (Riggs and Evans, 1979; Gil, 1970; Halperin, 1979).

Forms of Child Abuse

As teachers we need to be knowledgeable concerning the appearance of all forms of child abuse. If we care about the students in our classrooms as individuals, we need to be able to identify the child who needs immediate help, love, and compassion.

There are several forms of child abuse. Halperin (1979) identified nine forms without including infanticide.

Physical abuse is most easily recognized from the injuries on the body which may be of unusual shape, burns of odd shapes, bruises and cuts in varying stages of healing, and injuries which curve around the body.

Sexual abuse in 90% of the cases is between father and daughter. It is the most damaging to the total family relationships. The average age of the girl is about 11 years when sexual abuse is initiated. There are no outward marks but the girl may undergo a sudden behavior change and become withdrawn, cry for no apparent reason, turn hostile, or present behavior problems.

Physical neglect does not involve physical injury, but the parents or caretakers tend to ignore the child's physical necessities. The child may resort to stealing lunches for food and not have clean or appropriate clothing for extreme weather.

Medical neglect is the failure to get proper medical care for the child, such as failure to get eye glasses or medical examinations for school, and frequent absences from school for illness without seeing a physician.

One type of *emotional abuse* is the belittling of the child verbally and giving him/her a feeling of inferiority. The child may become convinced s/he is worthless, withdraw, daydream or become hyperaggressive. Other types include expectations beyond the child's ability, criticism for not meeting expectations, refusing to respect child's tastes and values, or extreme rigidity in controlling child's behavior.

Emotional neglect is the failure of the parents to give the child love, security or other emotional requirements for the child's psychic development. These children will strive for attention from others around them and usually develop a negative self-concept.

Educational neglect occurs when the home does not provide any stimulation for the child. A school may do this when it fails to provide equally for all the children in a classroom.

[1] Leaders at the Conference on Current Concerns in Home Economics Education, sponsored by the *Illinois Teacher of Home Economics*, University of Illinois, Champaign-Urbana, Ill., April, 1978 were asked to rank social concerns.

Abandonment is the complete rejection of the child by the parents. Examples are leaving babies in gas stations, hospitals, or on doorsteps. Or one parent may desert the family.

Multiple abuse is any combination of the above such as physical abuse and emotional abuse.

Infanticide is the disposing of unwanted children by killing them through some means not easily detected.

Causes of Child Abuse

Most child abuse takes place in the home and is usually done by the parents or the primary caretaker. The causes of child abuse may be:

1. The inability of the family to become involved in the life of the community. The nuclear family becomes isolated within the community. The strains and stresses of everyday living are allowed to build up with no outside source of relief (Garbarino, 1977).
2. The prior socialization of the parents to a method of punitive discipline for children. Some child rearing styles of ethnic, social and economic groups allow more physical punishment of children than others (Gelles, 1974; Gil, 1974; Bakan, 1971).
3. Immaturity of the parents which results in role reversal. Parents expect the child to assume behaviors of older children or adults or even to "parent" the parents. They may expect the child to fulfill the parent's psychological needs without any consideration of the child's needs (Flanzraich and Dunsavage, 1977; Halperin, 1979; Steele and Pollock, 1974).
4. The misinformation of the parents as to the appropriate behavior and development of children at different ages and stages of their life. The parents simply may not know what to expect of a child at a certain age (Halperin, 1979).
5. The lack of adequate parenting received by the parents when they were children, with the resulting insecurity and lack of a model. (Steele and Pollock, 1974).
6. The social and economic stresses caused by the crowded conditions under which many families must live and the tensions of modern life (Garbarino, 1977).
7. Due to the attributes of the child which invite abuse. Children are a seven-days-a-week, 52-weeks-a-year responsibility and some families find this a burden (Bakan, 1971).
8. Caused by a large family trying to live on very limited resources (Steele and Pollock, 1974).

The Role of Home Economics

In looking at the causes of child abuse, I find many areas in which Home Economics can help alleviate or prevent abusive behavior in future parents. One of the causes was the isolation of the family or the inability of the family to obtain or maintain group participation and membership beyond the nuclear family. In family living classes, students could be taught how to get involved in a new group in the community, how to make contacts with the group in which they are interested and to be able to present themselves as a person whom the group would find as a valuable resource. Actual experience gives the student a built-in resource of self-knowledge concerning the situation. A whole class could decide they would like to join clubs outside of school such as 4-H groups, Campfire girls, a Corvette Club, an old car club, a stamp collectors group, etc. With the group in the classroom acting as the supporting family to give encouragement in the endeavor, the student should gain the experience of working his/her way into a special interest group.

Richards (1973, 43) feels that Home Economics can be most effective in relieving child abuse through the effective teaching of realistic expectations of a child's behavior at different stages of development. Valuable theory can best be taught via actual experiences in working with small children and infants if students are led to abstract the principles from the experience. A play school does not have to be restricted to one age group of children. Different age groups in the same time period and same room allow students to see contrasts in age-specific development and capabilities. Within a family, children are of different ages and stages of development. If this is not possible, then students could work with different age groups of small children at different times and then draw conclusions and comparisons. It would be essential that students be made fully aware of the capabilities of small children for different ages and stages of development. Students need to be cautioned that all children will not necessarily be the same as those in the play school. There is no "average" child.

Another aspect of learning about the capabilities of children at different ages involves identifying suitable learning activities for the child at each age. Students need to find activities which do not require outlays of money but instead utilize the resources already present in the family. This will require that the Home Economics teacher be able to see the value of old newspapers, jar lids, magazines, old clothes, paper sacks, crayons, old sponges, plastic bottles, egg cartons, cardboard containers of all kinds and other readily available items. Students can be encouraged to create and utilize innovative ideas for using these items and also how to make play dough and paste from household products. The items that come from outside the house which seemingly have little value, can also be utilized to enrich a child's learning. Old boards, bottle caps, old tires, etc. can also be used creatively.

Baby sitting is a problem when families are trying to get acquainted with a new community. Where can one find a reliable baby sitter, or what avenues can one explore to ascertain the dependability of the baby sitter? Other alternatives for baby sitting should be discovered by the student within the community. Richards (1973, 45) suggests the formation of baby sitting pools. Foster grandparents programs can also serve as relief valves for harried parents.

In finding resources and utilizing them, the teenager is accomplishing more than just the utility function. The student will be finding that s/he can do something about his/her own life situation or the situation of someone else. Self-concept will be enhanced for that individual who finds that s/he is creative in using tools and materials in different ways. Being able to give something of oneself to another helps an individual to grow and develop into a more mature person. This "use of materials" approach can be the pathway to a higher self-esteem for the individual.

In working with the students in play school situations, the value of non-abusive discipline should be stressed. How do you tell a child *no* without slapping or hitting the child? Are there alternatives to the behavior the child is performing? How do you get the child to see the alternatives? Exemplifying behavior for disciplining small children should be paramount in the conduct of the play school. The cycle of physical punishment must somehow be broken. The supervising teacher needs not only to exemplify the behavior for the student but in her own actions toward the teenage students s/he needs to be showing them how to work with their peers and with older persons. The teacher needs to have love, concern, empathy and understanding as much for the student as for the small child. In this way the students can feel the love of an older person for themselves.

In teaching housing or interior design, there needs to be information included on how to live a satisfying life in crowded conditions. The several uses that can be made of the same space; the organizing of possessions to insure fewer clashes between individuals in the household; how to find privacy in a crowded house into which one can withdraw to relieve the tension within one's self—all are suggestions for helping students cope with the stresses of crowded living. If the students can begin to see that they can help their present family, perhaps the same coping techniques will carry over into later life.

Since physical neglect of children involves the nutritional intake of children, nutrition knowledge is needed. The amount and kinds of food that the child may need and the messiness the child may create when feeding him/herself should also be included. What is the range of normality in feeding behavior?

Clothing is also encountered in physical neglect. The amount of clothing actually required and how parents can take care of the clothes with the minimum amount of work and still maintain standards of cleanliness and sanitation need to be considered. Obtaining suitable clothing for extremes of weather for the protection of the child could be explored. Students can learn how to adapt hand-me-downs so the clothes do not look like hand-me-downs. Used clothing stores could be utilized as market sources. Exploration of these outlets for clothes could be done as a class or on individual assignments.

In all the examples of helping students find and utilize resources, the teacher is also helping the student become independent. The teacher is providing a means of growing as an individual to overcome the need to be dependent on others for resources. This in itself will help reduce child abuse as the individual goes from dependency to independence.

Parenting is a very important concept which needs to be discussed and explained. How does one demonstrate or explain good parenting to students? One method would be to have some mothers or fathers, if available, with very small children come to the classroom and discuss the problems of parenting, including their daily routines, care of the child, feeding the child, how they get laundry done, etc. Students need to see the child in the context of the whole family. They need to see the demands placed on parents and how those parents cope with the problems. The parents should be encouraged to tell how they hold the child, talk to the child and feel about the child.

If inadequate parenting is handed down from one generation to another, the students need to realize the importance of parenting in the life of the individual and be aware of the consequences of inadequate parenting to individual persons.

Unwanted children are more prone to be abused than those that are wanted. The prevention of conception is a major factor in reducing unwanted pregnancies. Family planning information should be presented in a straight-forward, factual manner using correct terminology. Information on availability and sources of contraceptives should be available to students.

In elementary and junior high groups, stories could be presented in which animals take on the problem or characteristics of humans. This makes the situation objective and does not point a finger at anyone. Stories may also be the classic children's stories such as 'Snow White', 'Cinderella', 'The Ugly Duckling', 'Hansel and Gretel'. Each of these has child abuse incorporated in the story. It is easy to depict and forms a good basis for discussion (Riggs and Evans, 1979, 257).

At the high school level some other techniques for teaching about child abuse would be to:

1. Have students write to Congressperson, state legislator or local agency asking about legislation on child abuse.
2. Draw up a statement on the rights of the child.
3. Develop a bulletin board on child abuse.
4. Investigate the child abuse reporting law of your state.
5. Write articles on the meaning of different forms of abuse for the school newspaper (Riggs and Evans, 1979, 259).

There are no easy solutions to the problems of child abuse. Every school, family, community is different. Some techniques will work for some but not for others. Perhaps you, in your situation, can provide solutions which are unique to your community.

Home Economics as a profession is dedicated to the improvement of life for individuals and families. We care about the people we serve; therefore, we cannot sit idly by when we know child abuse occurs. We must reach out to those individuals who need our expertise in decision making and in the solving of family problems which result in child abuse.

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Children's Bedtime Rituals: A Vehicle for Understanding How Children Cope With Separation Experiences

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Separation anxiety in young children is encountered when a family moves to a new location, or when death or divorce occurs in a family. The emphasis is often on the traumatic nature of these events on children rather than on trying to understand how children can be helped to cope successfully with the separation experience. Teachers who stress the traumatic nature of separation events to the exclusion of how children successfully cope with the experience lose sight of the fact that most children deal successfully with daily temporary separations and that by studying these daily temporary separations, we may be better able to understand how to help children deal with more traumatic, permanent separations such as divorce, death, or moving.

Basically, any type of separation, whether it is of a temporary type (such as going to nursery school for the morning) or a permanent type (such as death), involve children in having to deal with two basic concerns. These concerns are:

1. assurances that when a separation experience does occur, the child's relationship with the loved one will continue, and
2. maintenance of the child's self concept or identity in the face of a separation experience.

One of the ways to explore how children successfully cope with separation experiences is closely to examine the bedtime rituals of children. Children's bedtime rituals can provide students with an illustration of several features of a temporary separation experience encountered by young children.

Features of a Bedtime Ritual

There appear to be several common features or occurrences which appear in interactions between the child and parent(s) as bedtime approaches. Albert* described seven common features of the bedtime ritual after observing and recording this event in many families. These seven features included: stalling, parents' increased use of the child's name, the child's use of the word *my*, an increase in the amount of demonstrated affection between the child and parent(s), a sequential order of activities, a bedtime story, and a progression from past to future in discussions between the child and parent(s). In discussing these common features of bedtime rituals, Albert (1979) went on to postulate the reasons for their occurrence. The following is a brief description of each feature and why it may occur.

1. Stalling

As bedtime approaches, children frequently employ stalling techniques such as requesting a drink of water or a trip to the bathroom. Stalling is used by children as a device to delay the impending separation (going to sleep). This feature is also used by the child as a way of gaining assurances from the parent(s) that the parent cares about the child's needs.

2. Use of the Child's Name

As bedtime approaches, it is often observed that the parents increase their use of the child's name. Words of endearment in conjunction with the child's name also may increase. This process tends to reinforce the child's identity and uniqueness as a person. It also provides a greater sense of intimacy between the child and parent(s). By increasing the feeling of intimacy between the child and parent(s), this feature also reinforces the child's sense of continuity of the relationship with his/her parents.

3. The Child's Use of the Word *My*

As bedtime nears, children can often be observed to focus increasingly on or identify with their possessions. By identifying "my teddy", "my book", or "my P.J.'s", the child is providing an indirect expression of who s/he is. This feature helps the child to maintain and reinforce his/her identity which is threatened by the ensuing separation.

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*Albert, S., Amgott, T., Krakow, M., Marcus, M. "Children's Bedtime Rituals As A Prototype Rite of Safe Passage," *The Journal of Psychological Anthropology*. 1979.

4. Increasing Affection

Bedtime observations reveal that the child and parent(s) become increasingly more affectionate and intimate with each other as the ritual progresses. This serves to assure the child that s/he will be taken care of, is loved, and is a source of pleasure for the parent. This feature helps to assure the child that the relationship with the parents will continue.

5. Sequential Order of Activities

This feature manifests itself in the typical routine of the bedtime ritual: bath, pajamas, story, and good night kiss. By having a particular order of activities night after night, the child knows what will occur after each step. This feature serves to reinforce the child's sense of security.

6. The Bedtime Story

This feature occurs near the end of the ritual. The story helps to quiet the child in preparation for sleep. The story is also a gift from the parent to the child, so the child is expected to reciprocate the gift by going to sleep when the time comes. The bedtime story also provides another opportunity for intimacy between the child and parent(s).

7. Progression From Past To Future Orientation In Discussions

As bedtime approaches, the conversation between the child and parent(s) changes focus from a past orientation (what the child did today) to a future orientation (what the child will be doing tomorrow). This feature of the ritual helps to assure the child that even though a separation (going to sleep) is pending, the relationship between the child and parent(s) will continue.

The seven common features of a bedtime ritual serve to help children deal with the two basic concerns of separation: assurances that when separation does occur, the child's relationship with the loved one will continue, and maintenance of the child's self-concept or identity in the face of a separation experience. The first concern is dealt with whenever there is an opportunity for intimacy between the child and parent(s) (the use of the child's name, the increased affection before bedtime between parent and child, and the bedtime story), and through the use of the sequential order of activities and the past-to-future-orientation features of the bedtime ritual. The second concern is dealt with by the use of the stall feature and the child's increased use of the word *my* during the bedtime ritual.

In order to help high school students identify methods that children can use to cope successfully with temporary or permanent separation experiences the following lesson is provided.

Objectives

The student will:

1. describe the basic issues involved in the separation process for children
2. conduct an observation of a child's bedtime ritual
3. analyze children's bedtime rituals for their common features
4. describe methods to help children successfully cope with a variety of separation experiences

Content

1. Children successfully cope with many temporary separation experiences.
2. Learning to cope with temporary separation experiences can provide some understanding of how children cope with permanent separation experiences.
3. Separation experiences often involve anxiety about two issues: the maintenance of the child's relationship with the parent(s) and the maintenance of the child's self-concept or identity in the face of a pending separation.
4. Bedtime rituals can be used to help students understand some of the features of a temporary separation experience in children.
5. Bedtime rituals frequently include seven common features which help to explain how children cope with a temporary separation experience.
6. An analysis of the features of children's bedtime rituals can lead to generalizations about how to help children cope with permanent separation experiences.

Activity

1. Ask students to observe a pre-schooler being put to bed. Students should try to observe a child they know, should be encouraged to arrive one hour before the child is put to bed, and should attempt to record as much conversation and activity during the hour before bedtime as possible.

2. Students then bring their observations to class in order to compare their observations, and to discuss the following questions:
   a. Are the typical features of the bedtime ritual present?
   b. Are there any other common features present in the observations? If so, what are they?
   c. Does the child express any needs and if so, are these needs satisfied?
   d. How is the child's self-concept affected by the ritual?
   e. How does the child know that his/her relationship with the parents will continue?
   f. Are there any differences between the way mothers and fathers interact with children during bedtime rituals? If so, what are these differences?
   g. What does the child learn about separation that may influence his/her responses to other separation experiences in his/her life?

Evaluation

Ask students to write a letter to a young child or his/her parents to help the child cope with the death of a grandparent, a divorce in the family, or a move to a new town, based on the information they acquired during the class discussion on features of the bedtime ritual.

The Double Challenge of Schoolage Parenting and Infant Development Programs

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The number of teenagers becoming pregnant and bearing children is increasing every year. Many Home Economics teachers are involved as directors and/or teachers in programs for these young parents and their infants and toddlers.

Despite my background as a teacher in preschool, junior and senior high and university, as well as work in infant care programs, I found each day I spent as the director of a program for innercity schoolage parents and their infants and toddlers to be a double challenge. This double challenge to all teachers and staff who work in schoolage parenting and infant development programs is (1) to design and execute a curriculum which presents to adolescents in some relevant way the many aspects of parenting; and (2) to design and execute a quality curriculum for a program of group care for infants and toddlers and to train student caregivers for that program.

Designing and presenting a parenting curriculum that is relevant to adolescents—a period of life in which learning to be a parent is not a normal developmental task—is indeed a challenge. A parenting curriculum must first meet the students' own needs of relating to peers and family members, developing a positive self-concept, identifying values, making decisions, and choosing a career. The curriculum must also include growth and development of children, meeting a young child's needs, and practical child care skills, plus many more topics if the multi-aspects of parenting are to be addressed.

Providing a quality program for the children and experiences for student caregivers is a singularly large challenge. The infant/toddler years are ones in which experiences are most crucial to the individual's future development. Many in the field of child care feel that the most highly educated and experienced teachers should work with the youngest age group, because of the tremendous importance of these early years. The younger the child, the wider the range of functioning for which the caregiver is responsible. Caregivers must simultaneously deal with all aspects of the child's development.

Those who have analyzed an infant's needs and how to provide for them in group situations recommend that programs be staffed by a few regular and stable caregivers who can provide continuity and security in the child's life. These caregivers must understand how to build the child's competency by not hovering over him/her, but by being available when needed, and by helping when the child requests help, by taking him/her one step further than where she is, and then by stepping aside.

Caregivers must build in the infant feelings of trust that the world is a secure and dependable place. These feelings are acquired when the infant's physical needs are met promptly and regularly and when s/he is cared for and helped by patient and loving caregivers who really want to be caring for the infant at that moment. The caregivers must be able to build autonomy in the toddler by providing many experiences in which the child learns that s/he can have control over the environment, rather than the environment having control over him/her.

Caregivers must provide sensory-motor experiences consisting of many hands-on experiences that are not always neat and orderly. A toddler needs messy materials, such as paint, playdough, waterplay, which sometimes take more time to get out and put away than the time the child spends using them. Language development must be fostered by caregivers who can supply elaborated language codes appropriate to the experiences and needs of the child. They must be able to introduce and help build concepts for the child through repetition of words and experiences.

Providing quality group care for infants and toddlers is a difficult and demanding job. It requires caregivers who possess the highest personal qualities—those qualities Erikson* calls "generativity". Caregivers must also be knowledgable and be willing to add continually to their knowledge of the normal development of children, theories of development, and methods of enhancing the child's development.

In high school parenting and infant development programs it can be assumed that the adult staff consists of these qualified and knowledgable caregivers—possibly to a greater degree than the staff in the majority of community group infant/toddler care programs. This is imperative since these adults must also act as models for the student caregivers.

*Erikson, Erik, *Childhood & Society*, New York, Norton, 1963, p. 268-271

Many of these student caregivers have unfulfilled needs of their own. They come into the infant's environment for thirty to fifty minutes a day and are gone; many sometimes don't even want to be in the nursery. Many often feel that the infants and toddlers are too messy, too noisy, too demanding, or too "bad". Student caregivers often want only to hold the infant, dress up the adorable baby, entertain the toddlers, and, above all, keep the child and themselves clean and avoid messy or active involvement with him/her. They often want the child to fulfill their own needs to be loved and given attention. They are too often more concerned with their own serious and pressing problems than with whether or not the baby is lovingly held while given a bottle or comforted and reassured, acquires concepts such as "under" or "above", or receives sensory motor experiences while being diapered or fed, playing in water from a faucet, or playing in the sandbox on a cool day.

The double challenge faced by parenting and infant development program faculties must be met for the benefit of the adolescent parents and future parents who are learning and being guided in the programs. They must also be met for the present needs and future outcomes of the vulnerable infants and toddlers for whom the programs provide care.

Suggestions for Meeting the Double Challenge

Student Programs

Curriculum. Curriculum materials to supplement the basic child development/parenting components by adding lessons addressing self-concept, personal growth, values, and decision making are needed. Suggested sources are as follows:

Bureau of Homemaking Education, *Instructional Patterns for Maximizing Human Potential,* California State Department of Education, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, CA 95814.

Tidewater Assembly on Family Life, *Dimensions for Living: A Teaching Guide, Grades 7-12,* 1977, The Planning Council, 1100 First Virginia Bank Tower, 101 St. Paul's Boulevard, Norfolk, Virginia 23510.

Physical Environment. A comfortable, physical environment with areas for relaxing, conversation, and rap sessions facilitate student learning. Equipment for such an area might include a carpeted area, large throw pillows and/or bean bag chairs, couches, and rocking chairs.

Infant Care Programs

Personnel. In our program we want a head teacher who relates well to the student parents and/or caregivers and who has a strong background in infant-toddler development and care. We have other paid teachers and aides and/or adult volunteers who also relate well with students and who have an understanding, both theoretical and practical, of infant-toddler development and care. We have one adult caregiver for each three or four children so that students fill only the roles of *supplemental* caregivers. Utilizing adult volunteers, especially at the beginning of each school term, increases the number of adult caregivers in the program. They help provide consecutive, quality care of the infants and toddlers, and they model appropriate caregiving for the students. The program director is allotted time and resources for recruitment and training of volunteers. The volunteers are required to work on a regular schedule throughout the school term for the benefit of the infants for whom they provide care, and for the time and energy of the permanent staff who prepare them for their work.

Student caregivers. Before students assume the role of caregivers, they participate in a program which includes basic infant/toddler development, methods and philosophy of caregiving, and observation of the ongoing program. The program is conducted either throughout the school term preceding the student's work in the nursery, or, as a program package to be completed prior to the student's assuming the caregiving role. Adult staff are also required to complete such a program or its equivalent. Individualized program packages allow for flexibility of instruction in face of the frequent turnover of students in many inner-city schools. The package includes reading assignments, study sheets, quizzes, directed observations and activities (routine care procedures) and a final, qualifying exam which consists of both written exam and oral interview. Suggested readings for the caregiving training program might include:

Gonzalez-Mena, J., & Eyer, D. W., *Infancy and Caregiving,* Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1980. The book has one section about caregiving and one about infant development. It emphasizes the importance of giving respect to the infant. Each chapter has questions to stimulate student-self-study and/or group discussion.

United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Child Development, Children's Bureau, *Infant Care*, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, #1791-0140. This widely-read government publication covers a broad aspect of infant care and basic development. Concisely written and simple language.

Wills, A., & Ricciuti, H., *A Good Beginning for Babies: Guidelines for Group Care*, Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1975. While this book covers the broad aspects of operation of a group care program, the chapters on play and learning, helping babies adjust, and routine caregiving help students acquire a philosophy of group care of infants.

Infant care program. In the infant facility, the priority is given to infant-toddler well-being, and the focus of attention of adults and students is on the children. When student caregivers experience days in which they are greatly disturbed by personal or other problems, they do not assume their caregiving responsibilities. Rather, they are permitted some "time out" to relax—sometimes just simply taking a nap—or to discuss their concerns with a teacher or counselor. A real asset to a program is a regular part-time counselor or psychologist.

It cannot be over-emphasized that programs for school-age parents and their children require more highly educated and dedicated personnel, more student services, more staff time and energy, and more funding than regular secondary programs. Only when these resources are present can there be hope of addressing this double-challenge which both society, and home making teachers are being increasingly required to face.

FOOTSTEPS
a 20-program Series on Parenting
A Review

U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare, 1979. Developed by a consortium of Applied Management Sciences, Inc., Silver Spring, Maryland; Educational Film Center, Springfield, Virginia; and Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland. Published by University Park Press, 233 East Redwood Street, Baltimore, Maryland. Copyrighted until 1984.

This series of programs includes 20 half-hour video tapes ($40.00 each), 20 booklets for student reading, a Teacher Manual which includes the student booklet material in small print and suggestions for using and elaborating on it and the video tapes, and a Discussion Guide for leaders. The video tapes and the written materials can be used separately, but together they reinforce and strengthen each other.

For further information in regard to ordering write

Bureau of Mass Communications
State Education Department
Cultural Education Center
Albany, NY 12230

The designated audience for this program series is "parents of young children, parents-to-be, and the general public."

The subjects and the program titles (of films and booklets) for the 20 programs follow:

Subject	*Program Titles*
1. Identity	"Queen for a Day"
2. Children's Identity	"No Comparison"
3. The Need for Early Stimulation	"First Signs of April"
4. Preparing for Parenting	"Two to Get Ready"
5. Children and Television	"Who is Sylvia?"
6. Dealing with Death	"And We Were Sad, Remember?"
7. Attachment and Independence	"Love Me and Leave Me"
8. Discipline	"Spare the Rod"
9. Nutrition	"What's Cooking?"
10. Play and Fantasy	"True Blue"
11. Loving Your Children	"I Love You When You're Good"
12. Listening to Children	"The Secret of Little Ned"
13. Parenting Styles	"Tightrope"
14. Social Skills	"New Kid on the Block"
15. Growing Up	"The Scratching Pole"
16. Children's Fears	"Hairy Scary"
17. Societal Support	"There Comes a Time"
18. Competence	"Stacking the Deck"
19. Creativity	"Christinitas"
20. The Handicapped Child	"I'll Dance at Your Wedding"

My impression of the series, based only on an examination of the written materials, is very favorable. The 14-page booklets are colorful and illustrated, and they include introduction to theorists as well as activity pages. The reading level seems to vary within each booklet, some of it being understandable by those youth and adults who read at upper elementary levels. The format also varies from page to page, and this variety should help to hold reader interest. Each one is sufficiently self-contained that a teacher could select from the 20, without using all of them, and plan his/her own unit of study.

The first program, titled "Identity: the 'I's' Have It" and subtitled "Queen for a Day," begins with a couple of paragraphs on Who am I? and continues with three "big ideas" (principles of development) and a Peanuts cartoon. There is a quote from Alice in Wonderland at the beginning of the next section entitled "The Source of Self" which includes the first three of Erik Erikson's stages of identity. (The others are included in the Teacher Manual.) The next section begins with a Chinese proverb, "A child's life is like a piece of paper on which every passerby leaves a mark," and explains some ways we can show children how they are special and why they need opportunities to do things themselves.

The booklet also includes a brief introduction to the film and a short bibliography headed "Book Browsing." The "primary author" for this and several of the others is Sharon Barry.

The Discussion Guide contains suggestions for introducing and following up the film, with specific questions to lead the discussion and comments to contribute.

The series should be helpful to a wide variety of teachers and leaders in parent education programs.

Hazel Taylor Spitze

Hucksters in the Classroom

A Review of Industry Propaganda in Schools

This recent publication by Sheila Hartz may be ordered from Education Exploration Center, P.O. Box 7339, Minneapolis, MN 55407. $11.00 for individuals, $21.00 for institutions.

It may help you analyze the industry-provided "educational" materials you use or could order for your classroom.

For a list of sources for alternative materials for the classroom (i.e., materials the author does not consider industry propaganda), send a large, stamped, self-addressed envelope to

Sheila Hartz
P.O. Box 19367
Washington, DC 20036

Energy Saving Ideas

Clothing choices can keep us comfortable with lowered thermostats in winter and higher ones in summer, and the way we use textiles and colors in home decorating can also save energy.

Details of ways we lose body heat, or use clothing to trap and hold it, are given in a *new slide program* which explains the effects of yarn construction, weave, layering, fit, color, and style of garment on thermal comfort in winter—and the reverse for summer comfort. A chart is included which shows how much a given change in clothing (e.g., skirt to slacks) enables us to lower the thermostat without any change in thermal comfort.

The 75 slide program includes 19 slides with suggestions for home decorating in living room and bedroom which can save energy.

Also included is a 20 item true-false quiz to test your knowledge and stimulate interest.

For information on ordering the program write:

Coats and Clark Inc.
Dept. "Energy"
72 Cummings Point Rd
Stamford, CT 06902

The Dynamics of the Homemaker's Role Adaptation: A Class Experience

Niva Shapira
Head
Home Economics Program
School of Nutritional and
Domestic Sciences
The Hebrew University
of Jerusalem
Faculty of Agriculture,
Rehovot, Israel

Introduction

Viewing the perspectives on the family for the year 2000, Cole (1977) stated that we are facing "a pluralistic revolution, which not only tolerates but is beginning to encourage diversity and change. This means that it will be somewhat easier in the 21st century to move from one life style to another." He emphasized the trends toward transitionary life styles which will be mainly due to the need for adaptation to life situations since we live in a world of continuously changing stimuli. Preparation for the complexities of tomorrow's choices is therefore recommended, according to Cole.

In terms of the family ecosystem (Bubolz et al., 1979; Hook and Paolucci, 1970; Paolucci et al., 1977) and equilibrating mechanisms (Kantor and Lehr, 1975), complexity and diversity of the environment might raise the significance of adaptive mechanisms and diminish those of maintenance. Preparing students for a transitory style therefore implies development of the conceptualization and skills related to adaptive mechanisms.

The following class experience aims to achieve affective and cognitive learning of the process of adaptation as a preparation for transitions in the mode of functicning. It deals with the causal dynamics of changing awareness and the subsequent adaptation of environmental inputs. The focus of the experience is the role of the mother.

The target population: Senior high school home economics students.

Time frame: 2 to 2½ clock hours.

Class experience

1. Objective: To enable all students to relate to the same family situation, students are asked to assume the role of a Mrs. Shiloni, in a specific "family situation" which follows.

2. Students are presented with a list of 25 simulated newspaper headlines which includes five categories of the homemaker's role: House-keeping, mediating-mother, wife, citizen and woman in society. Five headlines are related to each of these categories.

The students are asked to choose the ten headlines which they consider to be most relevant for the mother in the given family situation and rank their potential contribution to her effective performance. For list of headlines see below. These choices and rankings represent the pre-test.

Students' choice and ranking indicate their information preference (environmental input), which, in turn, can be interpreted as reflecting the role priorities of the mother.

3. The students are then asked to participate in a one-hour class discussion on the role of the mother as mediator between the growing child and the environment. The appended material on the mediation role of the mother is used for the opening of the class discussion.

During the discussion, deliberate effort is made to introduce terms and concepts from the model of the family ecosystem (Bubolz et al., 1979) and the basic control system unit of behavioral organization (Kantor and Lehr, 1975). These are graphically presented and extensively used during the discussion.

4. As a post test, the students are asked to repeat the ranking procedure.

5. Both pre- and post-test means are then put on the blackboard at the end of the exercise, in order to show whatever shifts relating to the "mediating function" of the mother had occurred. Shifts relating to "house-keeping" are also represented, since it was found that increases in the priority of the mediating function are due mainly to decreases in this aspect.

Students are then given the opportunity to discover the effects of this novel class experience upon their previous priorities, and become aware of the fact that the class-experience has engendered a new set of priorities.

Results from other classes (Table 1) can be used for comparison and discussion in order to show whether results agree or disagree with a more general phenomenon.

Results

Results from several classes are shown in Table 1. From comparison between the pre- and post-choice and ranking, it can be seen that class experience increased the number of students choosing headlines related to the mediating function and increase their ranking levels. A reciprocal trend was found in the choice and ranking of headlines related to the function of housekeeping.

Table 1 Effect of the class experience on choice and ranking of newspaper headlines
(number of students choosing and ranks alloted to each headline)

	HOUSE-KEEPER										MEDIATING MOTHER									
Number of Headline	4		5		13		22		23		3		11		16		20		25	
Class A (N=28) (10th grade)	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
No. of students choosing headline	28	18	4	2	24	14	2	2	20	5	21	30	28	27	20	30	8	25	28	30
	*-				*-						*+				*+				*+	
Mean rank	2.2	5.9	5.3	5.5	4.7	6.7	6.0	9.5	6.5	9.6	5.5	2.9	4.6	4.1	6.3	3.8	3.1	5.3	5.9	3.7
Class B (N=13) (10th grade)																				
No. of students choosing headline	11	7	9	2	7	2	0	0	1	1	13	9	7	7	8	10	4	5	10	7
	*-										*+				*+					
Mean rank	1.6	5.4	4.7	5.5	4.4	9.0	0	0	2.0	7.0	4.3	1.6	6.6	5.3	6.9	3.5	7.3	7.0	5.1	3.3
Class C (N=17) (11th grade)																				
No. of students choosing headline	12	10	5	0	13	9	0	1	13	2	12	14	16	17	12	16	3	16	15	17
	*-				*-						*+		*+		*+				*+	
Mean rank	2.8	8.1	3.0	0	4.0	7.7	0	9.0	6.3	8.5	6.9	2.2	5.6	3.9	7.2	3.5	8.7	4.6	6.6	3.3
Class D (N=14) (12th grade)																				
No. of students choosing headline	9	9	10	4	2	11	1	0	3	4	8	13	12	14	5	11	3	12	11	14
											*+								*+	
Mean rank	3.7	3.1	4.3	4.3	9.0	6.3	10.0	0	7.3	7.3	5.4	2.8	5.5	4.1	6.4	5.3	6.3	3.6	6.7	3.0

* represents significant ($P \leq 0.05$) change from pre- to post-test
- represents a decrease in importance
\+ represents an increase in importance

Conclusions: Both the content and the procedure offer affective and cognitive learning opportunities of interface functions in the dynamics of adaptive mechanisms. The *content* deals with the dynamic process of the interaction between the growing child and its ever changing environment whether actual or perceived, and the potential contribution of the interface function of the mother, as the mediator between the two. The *procedure* enables students to experience: (1) the process of adapting environmental inputs to newly set role priorities, and (2) the changes following class discussion and increased awareness of certain aspects of the multidimensional role of the mother.

The experience offers an effective vector for introducing concepts of the human ecosystem such as boundaries, interface, environmental inputs, negative and positive feed-back, maintenance and adaptive mechanisms. The procedure also helps to develop the instrumental skills of choice and ranking and of handling data.

Students' reactions indicated that the experience did contribute to their conceptualization of the adaptation process and their awareness of the potential contribution of the mother to the socialization of children.

Family situation: The family Shiloni has four children: Eyal (10), Ronit (8), Boaz (4), and Keren (1.4 years). The father, Asher (38) is a clerk at the Social Security Bureau. He leaves home at 7:30 (a.m.) daily, and returns at about 15^{30} (3:30 p.m.). Pnina (32), mother and homemaker, worked in a sweet shop before Boaz and Keren were born. Eyal and Ronit were put in the day-care center at 5 months of age. When Boaz was born, Pnina decided to raise him by herself. Presently, she is considering the possibility of putting Keren in the day-care center and returning to work.

Headlines of "newspaper articles"

1. There are no ugly women, only neglected women.
2. How to be interesting in social interaction.
3. What happens to you and to your child at play?
4. Inflation reaching rates of 5% monthly. What will be the economical conditions of salaried families?
5. Supportive women contribute to the career of their husbands.
6. How to revive an "old" love?
7. Hashish was discovered again in Ramat-Hasharon.
8. Ofira Navon: It was a real pleasure to welcome Rosalyn.
9. This summer we expect to see you in eggplant and gold colored clothes.
10. Children who eat breakfast regularly show better learning ability.
11. Considering religious feelings, films will not be shown on Friday nights.
12. Following warning strike, Social Security workers threaten unlimited strike.
13. "The way to a man's heart is through his stomach", old saying, new meaning.
14. Isolation is difficult for youngsters and bitter as death to the aged.
15. Let your child discover the secrets of building: Buy him "Lego" miracle blocks.
16. Fatal road accident on Petach-Tikva road.
17. The secret of good hostess: Serve guests a feeling of family warmth.
18. End of week-long vacation project in Tiberias for mothers of large families.
19. Parenting group sums up achievements in guiding "beginners".
20. Equitable marriage: The wife as a full partner.
21. Annual turnover of Tadiran's "Work-at-Home" constructed electronic units reaches 14 million Il.
22. Energy Saver—new inventions for heating water in homes.
23. Satisfying sexual relations guarantee steady marriage.

The Mediator Role of the Mother

At birth the babies are exposed at once to a strange world and are unequipped to understand the meaning of what they see, hear and feel. In order to live in our world, they have to understand the utility and purpose of the items and the meaning of human figures; to identify rights and wrongs and their situational dependency; to communicate their feelings, needs, voids, wants and desires.

The process is exhausting but the babies stay with their families: their mother, other family members and significant others translate the environment for them and ease the learning process. How? For example, while playing, the mother hides and signals her presence with her voice. The child learns to interpret alternative signals for visual presence, such as voice, personal belongings (such as shoes) etc. Other conclusions: "Mother exists also when I can't get to or see her." Such experience expands the environmental perception beyond the immediate stimuli.

Research evidence indicates the tremendous effect of the first years on child development, both emotionally and cognitively. The more understandable the environment and the more harmonious the child's involvement in it, the greater his/her willingness and capacity to participate in a complex world.

The theory of the mediated learning experience (Feuerstein and Rand, 1974) "conceives of the development of cognitive structures in the organism as being produced by two modalities of interaction between the organism and its environment." The first and the most universal one of these is the direct exposure to sources of stimuli impinging on the organism from the very earliest stage of its development. This exposure produces changes in the organism affecting its behavioral repertoire and its cognitive disposition, which, in turn, affects its interaction with the environment.

The second modality, which is far less universal and is more or less characteristic of the human race, is Mediated Learning Experience (MLE). By this we refer to the way in which stimuli emitted by the environment are transformed by a mediating agent, usually a parent, sibling or other caretaker, who, guided by his/her intentions, and his/her cultural and emotional investment, selects and organizes the world of stimuli for the child. The mediators have to grow with the child's world, communication style and perception of the environment and to understand his needs, interests and curiosities. By mediating in the child's environment, they can help to exclude some parts of the environment and increase the relevance of others. They can affect the extent of understanding, the rate of acquiring new concepts and the level of conceptualization. They can also affect the actual and perceived energy demands of various processes, and hence the drive for, or withdrawal from, further specific and general experience, "Since direct exposure to stimuli quantitatively constitutes the greatest part of the organism's experience, the existence of sets of strategies and repertoires which permit the organism to use efficiently this exposure has considerable bearing upon cognitive development." (ibid.)

Conceptualization of the mediating function by mothers, as such, and furthermore, its implications from perspectives of the family ecosystem, might increase their willingness to understand the process of child development and to acquire techniques for its improvement, i.e., establishing a creative and constructive intervention in the process of growth.

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Basic Approaches and Techniques in Time Management

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Some time ago, Hazel Spitze read that I am considered a time management expert. The thought makes me shudder. Experts are supposedly individuals more than 50 miles away from their home carrying an impressive briefcase. There are probably more caustic definitions.

Time management is an interest of mine, to be sure. Application of techniques and approaches from the literature on this subject have been extremely beneficial personally. As a result, I do indeed enjoy working with people and presenting to them some thoughts about how a valuable and scarce resource can be used to maximum benefit.

This article addresses two dimensions of what is normally part of a more extensive seminar on this topic. The article is in a way a self-study course, because ot its strong suggestion that you not only read but act.

There will be two parts. The first will explore some basic approaches that one must take if time management is truly to become part of one's daily activities. The second will provide six techniques designed to increase one's daily control.

There is no possibility that any one person will do all of them regularly. Indeed, it is very unlikely that more than one or two will become part of daily habit. At the conclusion of the second part, some very specific suggestions will be made on how to select from those techniques and build them into a program which has the possibility of making each day a little more controlled.

The Basics in Time Management

Eight principles are basic. They are so commonsensical that one is tempted to disregard them. But common sense isn't always common, unfortunately, and unless these principles are held to, the system won't work.

1. *Time must be managed.* Teachers I've talked with complain that they must be instantly accessible to just about everyone . . . that they can't manage time because outside influences control them. They are reacting, rather than initiating.

2. *Time management involves attitude change, and attitudes change very slowly.* The primary attitude you will have to change has to do with control. You must feel that it is possible to influence how each and every day in your life goes. You can develop schedules, secure quiet time to think, feel positive about relaxing instead of working in the evening, and generally do what contributes to your well-being, physical and mental. But change doesn't occur with rapidity. Of several thousand change studies I've reviewed over a period of years, no more than five precent represented success. The rest were failures largely because the would-be change agents didn't anticipate the degree of resistance that would be encountered, however small the recommended alteration in behavior or lifestyle was. So we must start very slowly with elements of our style and behavior that are small enough to alter. This way, we develop a pattern of success that can be built upon.

3. *Time management techniques are habits.* The techniques about to be recommended should be done each and every day. They are no different from exercises in the morning, brushing our teeth, or following a certain route to work or school. They should become part of unconscious behavior. We shouldn't really think about doing them, but should feel uncomfortable if they are eliminated on any given day.

4. *Adults can learn.* This should be a boost to our ego if we didn't know it already. If we think that the techniques are going to be too difficult at our age, we can remember that the latest findings have clearly established that our capacity to learn does not diminish with age. We may learn a little more slowly, but our power has not lessened and our ability to relate what we learn through actual life situations has *increased* significantly.

5. *Self-analysis precedes analysis of others.* In case we get excited about the techniques presented and about our staff and colleagues gaining greater control over the hours in a day, we may need to remember that we benefit from knowing ourselves first. If we become smitten with a particular time mangement technique and seek to have it adopted by others, we are suggesting a change. And we may need to stop for a moment to ask ourselves, "How would I feel if someone told me to make that change and I didn't want to?"

6. *Time management builds away from stress.* Stress has been defined as the absence of control. There are hundreds of studies today which point out how individuals in every setting deteriorate physically and mentally when they consistently feel that events around them are out of their control. Time management techniques, in particular, force us to think about how each day is going and to stop during that day to ask ourselves control questions. These questions slow us down, inducing relaxation and self-organization which may lengthen our lives.

7. *Time cannot be saved.* We cannot put time into an ice cube tray and freeze it. It cannot be distilled into coin and saved, either in a piggybank or a real bank to gather interest. The clock will tick all the time. The only thing we can do is to use the hours, the same hours available to everyone, more effectively, not efficiently. Effectively means doing the right job at the right time. It's possible to be very efficient and get done what is least, rather than what is most important.

8. *Perfection does not exist; excellence does.* Successful executives in nearly every setting emphasize that there is no such thing as perfection. There are no standards by which to judge this goal. What should be sought, rather, is excellence, giving to a task the level of effort it requires, no less, no more. It enables people to put a period to projects, write shorter reports, cancel meetings, and do many other things which allow for a higher level of accomplishment and less needless energy devoted to low-priority items.

Those are the basics. They should be internalized as the techniques are explored. The techniques will appear in the sections to follow. The first deals with basic and very successful approaches which are used just about everywhere by just about everyone. Following the techniques will be some suggestions on which to select and how to build them into a program.

The Most Effective Techniques

Effective techniques succeed only as habits, learned patterns of behavior. Some users describe them in different words, but the actions are similar. The following list of techniques is a composite of the way various users describe their successes in time management.

1. *The Core-Goals, Priorities, Lists:* Many people try to separate these three, but it really can't be done. They support and reinforce each other. Goals set priorities. The goals and priorities find their way into daily "to do" lists that concentrate on the important, rather than the trivial. Unless this core is in place, other techniques tend to be hit and miss.

Goals should be set for various periods of time and with varying degrees of precision. A lifetime goal can be somewhat more general than what one intends to accomplish during the coming academic year. Personal experience of those successful in managing their lives, emphasizes just how valuable goals are.

Priorities have a way of getting confused. A number of executives suggest an approach which modifies the traditional "A, B, C" ranking of items to be done each day. The great temptation is to list a lot of "C" or low priority tasks and feel pride in scratching them off a list. Top priorities, unless someone bangs the door down to get them done, are often put off to the side. To prevent this from happening, we can

1. divide tasks into the A, B, C groups initially and
2. when finished, look at the "B" group again, take half of them and make them "A"s and the rest make "C"s; then
3. divide "C"s into two groups, "C1" and "C2"—put all "C2"s in a bottom desk drawer and forget about them, periodically opening the drawer to throw out the contents.
4. We can set aside a period each day to do the C1 tasks, telephone calls, filling out forms, writing short letters. Most people don't need more than 30 minutes for this each day.
5. We can break "A-level" complex assignments into a series of smaller tasks which can be accomplished in no more than an hour. This whittles down the whole to a series of manageable parts which most people are willing and able to attack.

Lists: I once had a roommate who made reminder lists and promptly lost the lists. One "to do" list is all that is needed, made up any way one chooses. Its success depends upon: (a) how well it represents a true sense of one's daily priorities, and (b) how well we can use it to assess daily accomplishments. Previous articles in *Illinois Teacher* have emphasized the value of lists. They prevent reliance on one's memory.

2. *Control Questions:* Alan Lakein, leading management consultant, has framed the best question so far: "What is the best use of my time right now?"

The goals, priorities, and lists help answer that question and other, similar ones. These include: "Am I on track? What have I accomplished so far?" The questions force us to slow down, and look back on what has been done and what remains to be completed. Control was mentioned earlier in this article. Teachers, under pressure a lot of the time, should look for questions that automatically make the mind reduce speed. The time to ask the question and organize a response usually is measured in minutes and can save hours. Hasty decisions are avoided, and important details or steps that make for success are included, such as important phone calls. Haste can make waste.

3. *Acting on the Answer:* Procrastination takes far too much time. Involved in this common tendency is a lot of wasted effort and deferral of the inevitable. Tasks that take five minutes can consume 30 because of worry and putting off. A Georgia school superintendent with a clean desk and a reputation for getting things done said this suggestion helps him with paper. He tries to do something with any written item the first time it touches his desk. For many others, answering the question or "doing it now" means getting rid of paper, preventing it from becoming mountains of clutter.

4. *Concentrating on Excellence:* The division of tasks into priorities helps determine which deserve what level of effort. Less time gets spent on items of low importance. An Illinois principal said penciling in corrections on many documents avoided unnecessary retyping. The task got what effort it deserved, no less, and certainly no more.

5. *Seeking and Protecting Quiet Time:* Until this becomes an established daily fact of life, the pressure is still on to do too much at the direction of others. Each day there should be moments for our mind and body to cool down. Three or four 5 to 15-minute periods of quiet and relaxation can help to pace the day. The best way to use these periods is with the eyes closed and the feet up. Sitting in the dark also is helpful. For the busy teacher, twenty minutes at home at the end of the day is the most important quiet time. It allows for transition from a day with children to family and personal activities. Those twenty minutes can increase one's life.

6. *Learning to Say "No" in Many Ways:* This may be the hardest thing to do as a service-driven person, but it is a must. Delegation is part of the answer. Eliminating tasks is another technique. Recognizing one's limits is a third. When one truly believes in goals set, "no" will be much easier. Colleagues and family can be told that "I need time for my priorities now!" It takes courage, and goals help to bolster it.

Technique Selection

Small successes will lead to belief in the value of this self-improvement program. To achieve limited success, we can do the following:

1. Select *one* of the six techniques that seems immediately useful and directed toward an area where some past difficulty has been encountered.
2. We can tell a colleague what that choice is and ask her/him if it seems useful for us. If we get a *no* answer, we can consider changing our selection.
3. We'll put the selected technique on a card and place it where we'll see it regularly, and
4. evaluate its value each day or at least several times during a week.
5. If after six months, the technique is an unconscious part of our behavior, we can consider adding one more, and work with the two for six months.

Our "program" will be built on success. Time will be less of a villain and more a benefactor. Everyone wins in this situation.

The Foods Lesson

The teacher taught today of food —

—what healthy children ought to eat . . .
—when the family should sit at meals . . .
—how properly the table should be set . . .

It was a well planned lesson, and the teacher taught it well — but
Could she not see that today Maria ate no lunch?

Could she not hear the rumble of Jose's stomach as she talked of bread —
and meat — and milk — and fruit?

Could she not feel the embarrassment of hungry silence as she asked
the content of their meals that day?

by a Home Economics student in Arizona
who did not want to be identified

Avoiding Negligence in the Home Economics Classroom

Carol Ann Kiner
Home Economics Teacher
Fenton (IL) High School

Note:
The author and editor gratefully acknowledge the help of Paul Thurston, J.D., Ph.D., of the University of Illinois College of Education, who reviewed this article and offered valuable suggestions.

The teaching tradition of Home Economics is a grand one. The preparation of young people for the better administration of their homes is as American as the apple pies which formed the staple of old time lessons.

In recent years, there has been a movement toward the increasing professionalism of Home Economics and with it, the vision of the aproned school marm, squared off against a room full of angelic faces, becomes simply another bit of American lore. Teaching Home Economics just "ain't what it used to be."

Concomitant with this comes another trend in education, the reality that lawsuits may be more frequent than apple pies, and stepping before a Home Economics class, or any class, is sometimes an invitation to step before a jury.

Americans are probably the most litigious people in the world, a fact that doctors and motorists have known for years; but teachers are just beginning to find out that while they are making the hundreds of decisions they make during a day, plaintiffs are waiting in the wings ready to claim malfeasance, negligence, or any one of many legal wrongs.[1] The fact that the situation is getting worse is revealed by the fact that between 1789 and 1896 there were 3,096 cases which affected administration, organization, or curriculum in schools. In contrast, the five years from 1967 to 1971 saw 3,510 cases of this type.[2]

We need to explore those aspects under law where teachers are not protected, to alert Home Economics teachers to the legal dimensions of the decisions they make daily, and to find ways that Home Economics teachers may protect themselves.

When most people consider the idea of educational jurisprudence, they tend to think of the highly visible cases from the trial of Socrates, which involved a question of teacher morality, to the Scopes "monkey trial" which revolved around the teacher's right to academic freedom—a case more political in nature. Most cases are not of this type. There are far more cases resulting from situations where the teacher is sued for civil damages resulting from conduct in the course of educational duties.[3]

If a person commits a crime, s/he has broken a law against society. If one commits a tort, one has broken a law against an individual. People have the right to be free from physical and mental harm. Because of this, everyone who is injured has the right to be reimbursed for injuries caused by another. To say it another way, a tort has four aspects:

duty—the duty to respect others' rights (example: A Home Economics teacher owes her students the duty of keeping dangerous equipment out of their reach.),

violation—the breaching of the duty owed to another (example: The teacher allows dangerous equipment to remain unlocked and easily accessible to students.),

cause—violation causing injury (example: The student handles the equipment.), and

damages to the plaintiff as proximate results of the injury (example: The student is hurt).[4]

Each of these elements is necessary for a person to be found liable in a tort lawsuit.

While there are many sources of liability, most torts that develop into court cases have their roots in negligence. It is probably impossible to do something consistently without some negligence. Negligence needs no intent to do wrong, in fact, a teacher may have had the best intentions when dealing with a student, and have felt that s/he had done something in the most reasonable way possible, but when the case comes to trial, the other attorney will try to interpret the actions as negligent. Negligence can be applied in many situations. It doesn't confine itself to the classroom alone. Two types of negligence exist. They are malfeasance—negligent action, or non feasance—negligent failure to act.

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[1] Linn, John Phillip and M. Chester Nolte, *School Law For Teachers*. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1963, p. 5-8.

[2] Hogan, John C., *The Schools, The Courts and the Public Interest*. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, D. C. Heath and Co., 1974, p. 7.

[3] Strickland, Rennard, Jannet Frasier Phillip, and William R. Phillips, *Avoiding Teacher Malpractice*. New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1976, p. 4.

[4] Gatti, Daniel J. and Richard D. Gatti, *The Teacher and The Law*. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1972, p. 21.

Not all injuries that occur at school are the result of teacher negligence. Often, teachers will have nothing to do with an injury, and at other times an accident will occur, even though the teacher is supervising very closely. The fact that a teacher is in charge of a group of students, does not mean that the teacher is liable for every accident unless it can be shown that the teacher was negligent.

There must be a duty of care owed to an injured person, the breach of that duty, and consequent damage to the plaintiff as a result of that breach.[5] Although this would satisfy the earlier definition of a tort, it must be shown in addition, that a "reasonable and prudent person" could, or should have foreseen that the action could cause an injury unless steps were taken to safeguard the injured person,[6] or it must be proven that the defendant was careless or ignorant.[7]

"Reasonable and prudent are difficult words to apply to teachers. Because teachers follow varied concepts, there seem to be different standards applying to different circumstances. One is considered reasonable if what one does, or does not do, is what other teachers would do in a similar situation. Teachers are not expected by the court to act as a perfect teacher; however, because of special preparation teachers have had, the courts expect them to act, not as a "reasonable and prudent" person, not even as a parent would act, but as a skilled professional.[8]

Injury is generally foreseeable when large groups of students are gathered with no supervision, in specialized activities such as those which would occur in Home Economics classes in which appliances of various types are demonstrated or used, or in cases in which the teacher is absent from the room for a long period of time. For example, if a Home Economics teacher leaves the classroom unattended, and a student throws a seam ripper to another student, injuring the student's eye, the teacher's leaving the room was not the proximate cause of the eye injury, it was the thrown seam ripper. The teacher could not foresee this. However, the teacher's leaving the room might be the proximate cause if the teacher knew that the student who threw the seam ripper had a past history of acting up when the teacher leaves the classroom, and had thrown things on previous occasions. This could be foreseeability.

Carelessness ceases to be considered accidental, and becomes negligence in terms of the reasonableness of the behavior on the part of the teacher, or on the part of the students the teacher is controlling. For example, if the teacher were to leave the clothing lab for a few moments to assist a parent bringing a child for nursery school lab, and a student threw a seam ripper to another student, injuring the eye, the teacher would generally not be considered negligent. However, if the teacher left the room to run errands for twenty minutes, the decision would probably go against the teacher. Teachers are released somewhat of their responsibilities because they cannot be the insurer of the child at all times, but it is necessary to take the proper precautions depending on the ages of the students, and the extent of the dangers involved.[9] In consequence, a Home Economics foods teacher will need to exercise more care in supervision of students while they are cooking than s/he would in giving a written exam. Further, a human development instructor would need to give closer attention to preschoolers attending a nursery school lab, than s/he would to the high school students participating. If the teacher leaves the room for a few minutes, the teacher should have another teacher supervise during the absence, and additionally, inform the students of the expected behavior during the absence.

Another matter of concern is what the courts describe as an "attractive nuisance". Even though the teacher had prepared the class in a reasonable manner, negligence might be found when the child was not of a sufficient age or mental capacity to be trusted to follow the instructions. This does not apply to high school students, but for those who teach in the lower grades and middle schools, it is a concept to keep in mind, and to adjust activities accordingly.

If a teacher, through his/her own fault, is ignorant of a potentially dangerous condition, s/he may be liable for the accidents. Home Economics teachers can protect themselves by being on guard for range gas leaks, inspecting housing equipment, and practicing strict sanitation controls. Following is a checklist for Home Economics (or other) teachers to use to evaluate their protection from liability claims.

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[5] Op cit. Strickland, p. 126.

[6] Beck v San Francisco Unified School District, 37 *California Reporter*. 1964, p. 471.

[7] Op cit. Gatti, p. 61-62.

[8] *Ibid*. p. 58-60.

[9] Garber, Lee O. and Ben C. Hubbard, *Law, Finance, and the Teacher in Illinois*. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1975, p. 132.

Checklist for Teacher Liability Protection

____ 1. I have enough students for each lab station, and no more.
____ 2. I purchase the safest equipment available when I am responsible for its selection.
____ 3. I have competent people install equipment.
____ 4. My rooms are kept clean and free from pests.
____ 5. I have tested all of my students for knowledge of the rules of safety.
____ 6. Dangerous tools and equipment are kept in locked closets.
____ 7. My classes have definite assignments that prevent unstructured free time.
____ 8. I carefully explain all basic information regarding a project and give detailed instructions for the use of any needed machinery.
____ 9. I never leave my class unless there is another teacher in charge, and I have given instructions as to the type of behavior I expect while I am absent.
____10. I never send students on errands for me.
____11. I never allow students to drive my car.
____12. I keep a file of all accidents which occur under my supervision, so that I can take steps to avoid them in the future.
____13. I continuously inspect tools and equipment for proper functioning.
____14. I notify the administration (in writing with a copy for my files) if I am unable to correct hazardous situations.
____15. I practice what I preach.
____16. I use only school equipment, not my own unless I receive written permission from the administration.
____17. I place machines and equipment in safe locations so that the possibility of injury is minimized.
____18. I have drawn safety lines around off-limits or hazardous areas.
____19. I learn, by consulting the school records, and asking my students, of any handicapping problems my students have.
____20. I carefully consider the ages and maturity levels of my students when I require them to do various tasks.
____21. I avoid using unsupervised classroom helpers.
____22. I give extra attention to safety when planning activities which might be more hazardous than normal classroom activities.

This could be followed by a listing of problem areas that need immediate attention and plans for remediation.

One of the most important concepts on the list is to "practice what you preach." In an action against a school district for injuries to the fingers of a high school student, 17 years old, while he was operating a power saw without the guard, where he had been instructed not to do so, but where he had seen the teacher use the saw without the guard, it was held that the teacher was negligent. Negligence was the proximate cause of the injury, and the student was not held contributorily negligent even though he was intelligent and knew the safety devices were to prevent injury. This shows the need, additionally, to discuss with classes all factors of safety, and not to assume that they will know the reasons behind the rules.[10]

As stated earlier, all injuries received by students are not compensable. If a teacher is sued in a tort case, several defenses are available. The defenses include lack of duty, contributory negligence, assumption of risk, and intervening cause.

A teacher (or district) may argue that no duty was owed the student, as in a recent case where a student was hit by an auto while crossing the street next to the school grounds. The child argued that the school owed him the duty of a crossing guard. Although the injury was foreseeable, the court decided in favor of the school since it maintained it was the duty of the town rather than the school. The dissenting opinion in this case is interesting for those teachers who direct students to work stations, or on errands. It was that the school should be held liable since they had directed the students to cross there.[11] Keeping in mind that practical law changes as fast as the court decisions and interpre-

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[10] Ridge v Boulder Creek Union Junior-Senior High School District, 60 *California Appellate Record, Second edition*. 1943, p. 453.

[11] Wright v Arcade School District, 40 *California Reporter*. 1964, p. 812.

tations change,[12] teachers should exercise care in giving students directions. Giving a map would be a far better idea rather than drawing a route to traverse.

Contributory negligence is when the defendant pleads that the harm came to the plaintiff because of the plaintiff's own fault, at least in part.[13] In other words, the student must prove that at the time of the accident s/he was acting as would any student, of ordinary prudence, under the same or similar circumstances. This could be used in a case where a teacher had previously warned a class not to wear flammable fabrics in a food preparation lab. If a student, wearing a nylon garment was burned as a result of reaching across an open flame, the student contributed to his/her injury. However, many courts will not uphold the teacher in a case such as this one, especially if the students are young, because they may not have the degree of judgment to be liable for their actions.

Assumption of risk may be claimed when the plaintiff is sufficiently intelligent to recognize the risk involved in a situation, but selects to participate anyway.[14] If a teacher had warned students of the risk of high heat on cooking oil, and a student participated in a stir fry lab, and subsequently was burned by spattering grease, the teacher would no doubt be absolved of liability.

The final defense in a negligence case is that of an intervening cause. This means that one is not liable when injury results from some factor coming between the claimed cause of injury and the actual injury.[15] This could be used in a situation if a student was suing the teacher because s/he caused the student to clean the spattered grease from the range, resulting in the student being burned. The teacher could use this defense if the burn occurred because an intervening student had turned on the range right before the cleaning took place, assuming there are not sufficient grounds for a claim of inappropriate supervision.

Some teachers think that because a parent has signed a permit slip, or other liability waiver, they are safe. This is not the case. A parent permission slip can never be used as a defense. Parents cannot sign away their right to hold a teacher or district liable. These slips are only useful as a public relations tool to make parents aware of an activity. Sometimes, if parents have signed one, through ignorance of their legal rights, the parents will not sue.[16] More importantly, it removes the possibility of parents saying they did not know anything about the trip.

Statutes of limitations keep teachers from being sued after long periods of time have elapsed. The time period (two years in Illinois) varies from state to state. Statutes of limitations are not used very often, but as accountability of teachers for the lack of learning of their students is being questioned more often, this becomes an important concept.[17]

Malpractice among teachers is beginning to be considered now, too. Most notable of the teacher malpractice suits to date is *Doe vs. The San Francisco Unified School District*. Home Economics teachers proudly, and justifiably, proclaim to be professionals. "Violation of a professional duty to act with reasonable care and in good faith without fraud or collusion" constitutes malpractice.[18] While it would seem that Home Economics teachers, like professionals in law and medicine, would be subject to legal action for less than acceptable behavior, no malpractice standard applicable to teachers, analogous to the malpractice standard for doctors, exists. So far, no judge has been willing to find a teacher guilty of malpractice in a case where a student failed to perform at the expected level. The courts have thus protected teachers from civil penalties for malpractice.

Along these same lines, some states have enacted tort immunity acts which cover government employees, including teachers. In Illinois, the Local Governmental and Governmental Employees Tort Immunity Act[19] essentially provides immunity from suit under a number of specific circumstances. As examples, see section 2-204 and 3-102. If it does not fall under immunity, then it is actionable. There are limitations, however.

The oldest defense to the intentional torts is that of "in loco parentis." This means that while the teacher is supervising the student, the teacher stands in the place of the parents.[20] This formerly involved only questions of discipline, but since the Kobylanski case, "no liability can attach to teachers

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[12] Rubin, David, *The Right of Teachers*. New York: Avon Books, 1972, p. 12.

[13] Op cit. Linn, p. 253.

[14] Op cit. Garber, p. 144.

[15] Op cit. Linn, p. 250.

[16] *Ibid*. p. 258.

[17] Op cit. Strickland, p. 63.

[18] *Ballentine's Law Dictionary*. 3rd edition, Rochester, New York: Lawyers' Cooperative Publishing Company, 1969, p. 769.

[19] *School Code of Illinois* Ch 85, Local Government, 1976, p. 9.

[20] Op cit. Linn, p. 207.

for the mere negligence in supervision or maintaining discipline, as teacher's status is that of parent or guardian to all students in the classroom, and liability of a parent does not attach absent willful and wanton conduct."[21] This now causes the plaintiff to prove not only that reasonable care was not given, as necessary by the reasonable care standard, but also requires the plaintiff to prove that the teacher was willfully and wantonly negligent. Consequenctly Illinois teachers enjoy considerable immunity from negligence action because of both judicial interpretation of the *in loco parentis* doctrine and because of the legislated tort immunity exceptions.

In a typical year, a teacher spends close to 1600 hours with pupils. Yet in a split second, the pervasiveness of teacher liability can become clear. Statistics understate the exposure of teachers to court action due to difficulty in identifying actions because, as titled, they may not reveal a teacher as the defendant. Consider the fact that many situations do not even come to court attention because they are handled by insurance carriers. Vulnerability is inevitable since teachers are not free from the threat of a lawsuit even when they are off duty.[23]

Home Economists as teachers, as administrators, and as related school personnel can do what is probably the easiest, most sensible act to try to obviate, and minimize negligent acts, i.e., have some understanding of what negligence is, and with this knowledge, try to prevent it. Teachers can effectively guard against this almost impossible burden, not by retreating to a paralyzed position, but by being aware of the dangerous situations and issues. Through awareness, the teacher can make responses and take actions that will limit liability, and if need be, maximize defense. Reading available resources or taking a course in legal problems of education would be positive steps.

Another idea, suggested by Murad Agenlean, Attorney for the Chicago Board of Education, is that Home Economics teachers could consider giving a test which would include the safety requirements and practices of a specific room or lab. This is the type of test that students should pass with 100% accuracy. Some guidelines for the test would include: making sure the test questions are clearly stated, using positive rather than negative statements, providing tutoring for the students until all questions are answered correctly, keeping the test results until the child is twenty-one so as to avoid possible law suits, having the child sign the tests stating that they understand and will follow the rules contained in the test.

A student unable to pass the test with 100% accuracy should in the opinion of Mr. Agenlean be barred from the class or at least from the particular activity missed until the test is passed. If the administration will not allow this, a letter should be presented to the administration stating that in the teacher's professional opinion, the youngster should be placed in an environment which would be less prone to problems.

Teachers could put pressure in school districts to have in-service training which would make available to the teachers, as well as to the student body, the district's attorney to assist with legal questions relating to the school environment. With so many rights, responsibilities, and duties scattered through the School Codes, it is no wonder that people are confused. Individual teachers must be prepared to call their own attorney immediately for any legal question associated with teaching—keeping cognizant of the fact that the district's attorney may have an adverse interest in a particular case.

Teachers who systematically face the responsibilities of their duty, and recognize the limitations of their situation, can avoid the many legal problems inherent in this ancient and noble profession. Perhaps today's Home Economics teacher who says, "A stitch in time, saves nine," will be envisioning the Supreme Court, as well as sewing.

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[21] Kobylanski v The Board of Education, 63 *Illinois Appellate Reports* 2nd edition. 1972, p. 165.

[22] *Ibid*. p. 170.

[23] Op cit. Strickland, p. 16.

A Junior High School Teacher Speaks... How I Teach PVE Students

Janet Anthony
Home Economics Teacher
Columbus, Indiana

Helping special-education students learn basic homemaking skills is the purpose of Pre-Vocational-Education Home Economics at Northside Junior High. The program provides both educationally and mentally handicapped students with practical "hands on" experiences which enable them to become more independent and self-sufficient at school, at home and in the marketplace.

In keeping with this purpose, a "Limited Co-op" Child Care Experience is offered to ninth grade girls enrolled in PVE Home Economics.

How the Experience Began

In September, 1977, I was faced with teaching nine special education girls in a PVE Home Economics class for eighth and ninth graders. Many questions ran through my mind: What experiences have they had? What are they interested in? What can they do? Is this a career I could help prepare them for?

I had not taught home economics for six years and to be faced with a special needs class seemed awesome and challenging. I decided to emphasize the career idea by drawing on my experience of the past six years of nursery school teaching.

A three-week study of child care was begun. After completing this study, the four ninth graders did volunteer work at Day Care Center II, one day a week for two hours during the school day.

Goals of the Experience

The goals are to provide experiences that help the PVE Special Education student to:

- accept and value the parental role
- relate their knowledge of human development to their own development
- gain skills, interests, and attitudes about careers involving the care and education of children

Course Structure

The in-class child care unit includes a pretest, films, and discussion on safety, characteristics, nutrition and activities of and for children from birth to seven years of age.

As a culmination to the study, an in-class nursery school is held for children 2, 3, 4, and 5 years of age. The PVE students are grouped to work with a specific age pre-schooler, and they plan specific activities for that age child. Each student must also present one written or oral observation of one of the preschool children at the next class meeting. Most choose the oral presentation.

This is followed by a field trip to Day Care Center I. The ninth grade girls then begin volunteer work at the Center the following week.

Student Selection

Student selection is based entirely on the fact that this class is a Pre-Vocational-Education class. Ninth grade girls were chosen to participate because they could get released time from their language arts class. Together with the home economics period this gives them a two-hour block of time to work at the Day Care Center.

The Experience

While at the Day Care Center the PVE girls all work in different rooms with 3, 4, and 5 year old children under the supervision of Mrs. Ellen Trowbridge, director of the Center and a lead teacher.

I visit them at the Center often, and I correspond weekly with Mrs. Trowbridge and, of course, the girls.

Support of the Experience

The entire course of study has the full support of the principal, the assistant principal, the language arts teacher, and the parents of the special education students.

Community support has been tremendous, as evidenced by the press and the volunteers who are helping us put the program into operation. Transportation to and from the Center the past two years has been provided by the Columbus Service League and a volunteer mother. This year school bus transportation has been obtained to Day Care Center II which is located between our two senior high schools.

One problem we encountered was that this year the girls working with small children at the Day Care Center must have a complete physical exam by a physician, and the families of these girls do not have the financial means to pay for the exam. Solutions: our school physician has agreed to provide the exams.

The program has been very successful for two consecutive years. At the present, the girls and I are very excited and ready for a successful third year!

Office for International Programs

The Department of Vocational and Technical Education at the University of Illinois has established an office to coordinate activities for: 1) preparing both American and foreign students for professional careers in overseas teaching, research or service in occupational education or training in agriculture, allied health, business, home economics or industry; 2) providing cross-cultural training and experience for department faculty; and 3) participating in interdisciplinary investigations of problems which have international implications or components. Further information is available by writing to the *Office for International Programs,* Department of Vocational and Technical Education, 345 College of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

Teens & Sex: a High School Survey

Charlotte Dunn
Home Economics Teacher
Mt. Pleasant, Texas

In order to discover some factors that relate to teen pregnancy, a survey was taken of 41 students* at Mt. Pleasant High School. Their ages ranged from 14 to 18 years and all had some degree of experience with sex. Twenty-seven of the participants were girls; fourteen were boys.

When questioned about extent of sexual involvement, 41% of the girls and 57% of the boys replied that they experienced sex frequently. Forty-eight percent of the girls and 43 percent of the boys replied that they experienced sex infrequently. Fifteen percent of the girls questioned had experienced a teenage pregnancy.

Nineteen percent of the teens responding reported that they experienced sex because of a physical need. Forty-one percent felt an emotional need to experience love through sex.

Sixty-one percent were left with good feelings after sex, while 27% felt guilty or worried about what they had done.

Reasons for sexual involvement were varied; 39% were prompted by curiosity to experience sex for the first time, while 44% first experienced sex because of the insistence of their partner.

Twenty-nine percent claimed that they were sexually active in order to be popular and have companionship.

Fidelity seems to be important to the majority of these teens; at the time of the survey, 63% were involved with only one person, while 37% were involved with more than one person sexually.

Sixty-one percent of the teens learned about sex at home, and 66% had been taught that premarital sex is wrong. Only 41% felt that they could discuss sex openly at home, and 88% felt that their parents would not understand a premarital pregnancy.

Forty-four percent reported that sex was a topic of much concern in their peer groups. Fifty percent felt that there is a definite peer pressure to be sexually active. Of the teens surveyed, 68% would want to marry if they found they were pregnant.

Only 10 of the 41 teens surveyed use contraceptives. This represents only 24% of the teens polled. Thirty-seven percent reported that they did have some knowledge of contraceptives and 29% would prefer using them but have no access to them.

Most of the teens participating in the survey had some knowledge about pregnancy and venereal disease; 90% were aware of how VD is contracted, and 83% had some knowledge of birth defects.

Thirty of the 41 teens responding reported living at home with both parents, while ten lived with their mother and one lived with his/her father.

Thirty-four of these teens came from a comparatively large family of three or more brothers and sisters. Although only 7 teens reported that they did not like living at home, 19 reported that they would rather have a place of their own away from parents and family.

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*A selected sample, half white and half black, interviewed by the author, in a high school of over 1,000 in a town of about 10,000.

University of Illinois
Home Economics Education Alumnae Conference
March 7, 1981

Everyone is welcome—alumnae or friends.

Program includes panels of experts in six subject areas of Home Economics to answer your questions, a 13 minute film (which you may borrow to show high school students) about Home Economics at the University of Illinois, a session on teacher strikes and unions led by two alumnae, and a presentation on "Effective Decisions: Personal and Family Welfare" by a new University of Illinois staff member in home management, Dr. Kathryn Rettig. It also includes exhibits, demonstrations of innovative teaching techniques by University of Illinois student teachers, a delicious luncheon, and breaks to visit with your friends.

The program begins at 9:00 a.m. in Room 22 Education Building with registration and exhibits and the first panel will start at 10:00. Bring questions for the panels and information of any position vacancies you know about (on a card to post on a bulletin board).

Registration, including lunch, is $7.00 and should be sent in advance to Hazel Taylor Spitze, 350 Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

The Decision to Parent: A Teaching Guide, Jerelyn B. Schultz, ed., with Penny Ralston, Barbara Rougvie, and Margaret Jan Kelly. Ames, Iowa, The Iowa State University Press, 1980. 170 pp. $7.95.

This guide, which teachers should find very useful, is built around two major objectives or competencies to be developed in the student: (a) appraising the variety of responsibilities involved in being a parent and (b) utilizing the decision-making process in determining if and when to become a parent.

It is arranged in four columns: (a) the more specific objectives or subcompetencies, (b) possible generalizations, (c) learning activities, and (d) resources. Missing are evaluation techniques or suggestions.

It avoids prescriptions of behavior and judgments as part of the content, but emphasizes principles which students could use in making their own judgments and prescribing their own behavior.

The wide variety of teaching techniques suggested leaves the teacher to select and arrange a course to suit her own students. Appendices have useful activity sheets for students, developed by the project staff or adapted from other sources, case situations, check sheets, questionnaires, interview schedules and reprints, all of which should save teachers' time and add to the effectiveness of the lessons.

The bibliography and list of films and resources seem well selected and extensive enough to be of great value to the teacher.

The project staff and the publisher are to be commended for this contribution to parent education for our youngest parents and parents-to-be.

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OF HOME ECONOMICS

Visions and Decisions for the '80s
Broadening Our Horizons in Home Economics

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Home Economists are Special People!

"Home economists are special people." *Illinois Teacher* and the Home Economics Education Division at the University of Illinois were fortunate in early December 1980 to have as our guest and Visiting Scholar Dr. Marjorie East, Emerita Professor and former Head of Home Economics Education at Pennsylvania State and former president of AHEA. The words above were hers. When she spoke them, the context indicated that home economists are special in terms of the affective domain—human relationships, values, attitudes, beliefs, appreciations, spirit.

Home economists are also special in terms of the wide range of useful skills we have. I was reminded of that during the Christmas holidays when I reupholstered a chair for the daughter I was visiting, and both she and my son-in-law were thrilled with that chair which had belonged to my mother. He even told me I deserved a special hug for that beautiful job! I also used another skill while there and put some large bound-buttonhole-type slits in a voluminous cape she had bought at a garage sale to accommodate her pregnant figure. I couldn't remember a more difficult sewing task, and so my sense of accomplishment was great when I finished and both I and they thought it looked good. Of course, I could have had these skills without being a home economist, and I could be a home economist without having these skills, but...

When my daughter protested that I had worked too hard during my visit and my son-in-law asked if I had known how big the job would be before I started, I said yes I did and added, "There is time enough to worry about work when one is *unable* to work. As long as work is voluntary, it is likely to have positive effects—self-esteem and pride, needed physical exercise in some cases, and when our productivity increases we even help fight inflation!

Home economists can also be special people in the cognitive area. Our background—in chemistry and other physical sciences, in physiology and other biological sciences, in economics and other social sciences, in psychology and other behavioral sciences, in art and all the rest—gives us a wide range of knowledge to focus on society's most basic unit, the family. It is our obligation to be competent in these areas and to make the needed applications. I tell my students that every time they make an A in chemistry, math, economics, etc., they help improve the image of our profession because they will be thought of as intellectual, and a profession needs to be populated with intellectuals. If we are weak in any of these background areas, it is never too late to remedy the situation with independent reading, more courses, institutes, conferences, conversations with specialists, and other means.

I'm sure Marjorie East would put this cognitive area first in her recommendations to home economists. We *are* special and we need to strive to become more and more special as we gain intellectual strength and develop our potential to the fullest.

The Editor

ATTENTION ALL!

Our Silver Jubilee

Next year is the 25th anniversary of *Illinois Teacher* and we plan to celebrate in two ways.

(1) We want to have a series of articles on "Twenty-five years of progress and a look ahead" in which we look at high school programs, teacher education programs, federal involvement in Home Economics Education, women's perceptions of their roles, international involvement, etc. Your suggestions for other topics are welcome.

(2) We plan to hold our second national, invitational conference for leaders in Home Economics Education. This time the theme will be "Interrelationships between Work Life and Family Life", and the date will be April 18-21, 1982. Again, your suggestions are welcome on subtopics of the theme and possible speakers.

Also, here's your first chance to nominate up to 10 possible participants for the conference, including yourself! We want every state and every type of position represented: teachers, teacher educators, administrators, supervisors at all levels, Extension home economists at all levels, home economists in business who are in educational positions, etc.

For the conference on "Interrelationships between Work Life and Family Life" I nominate as possible participants the following persons whom I consider leaders in Home Economics Education:

Name	Position	Address	Phone

Send to: Hazel Taylor Spitze, 350 Education, University of Illinois, Champaign, IL 61820.

First deadline: September 1, 1981

Foreword

In this issue of Illinois Teacher we have tried to have something for everyone—those who teach the young about the old, those who teach youth about clothing or nutrition, those who teach the mentally retarded, those who are looking for new ways to individualize instruction. Some will especially appreciate the speech by Dunsing which summarizes decades of research.

Occupational and career education is the focus in two articles, and consumer education of a practical and unusual kind is the theme for another. Teacher educators will be interested in an idea for preparing FHA/HERO sponsors, and all of us should benefit from the public relations ideas in the "Snowflakes" article.

We have tried to comply with your request for a short list of curriculum guides that can be purchased. It is annotated and we invite your special attention to pages 200-201.

As always, we'd like to hear from you, and we remind you again: the more subscribers we have, the longer we can wait to raise our rate. How many colleagues have *you* told about Illinois Teacher? Our goal this year is a 20% increase. With your help, maybe that will not be overly ambitious. A subscription makes a good gift, award, or "thank you".

Be it resolved that home economists take leadership in helping people define the quality of life in terms other than those which encourage high energy and other resource use.

Questions for Illinois Teacher readers:

Do you agree with the idea above?

Should we submit such a resolution for consideration at the next AHEA meeting?

Can you supply some of the "whereas-es" to support the idea?

If you disagree, what are your reasons?

I'd like to hear from you!

The Editor

Teaching 8th Grade Clothing Consumers:

a Slide-Tape Presentation with a Difference

Sharon Dierks
Home Economics Teacher
Buffalo, MN

Editor's Note: *The "difference" about this slide-tape presentation is that it is student produced. About 30 students were photographed by a 14 year old member of the Photo Club, assisted at first by the Club Advisor, and another 30 were involved in recording the tape. All were 6th to 9th graders working as volunteers after school. Included are student interviews with local merchants, the Extension Home Economist, and the local Police Department. Involvement promotes learning!*

All of my students are now, and will be shoppers. People make many purchases on impulse, and as a response to feelings. Shopping decisions, both good and poor, affect one's self image and social confidence. Our clothing choice and the condition of our clothes make a statement to others about us.

For these reasons, I decided to produce a slide-tape presentation. It is an effective teaching device and real to my students because

1) they can relate to the stores and to the merchants involved.
2) they will be interested because they will know some of the students in the pictures.
3) even when the styles become out of date, I expect the fiber information to be relevant; the change and growth of the people involved to be interesting; the blue jeans information to be needed; and the other information to be used as a good base for further discovery learning.
4) the film lesson will stimulate good discussion, produce more questions and lead to more learning. I intend to continue to develop assignments that include field trip buying studies and catalog comparisons to use as follow up.
5) the lesson also points to many sources of continued learning. (The Extension Home Economist, the merchants, the hang-tags, the dry-cleaner and his reference material, and the classroom.)
6) the presentation includes a variety of students, both boys and girls of different ages, race, popularity, and nationality background.
7) the kids who worked with me were interested and were learning.

The author with the student photographer, Dawn Jeske, who took & developed 180 photos during the project.

Organization

I use the lessons on three separate occasions and usually in the order that follows. Each of the three sections could be used independently, and they could be used for speaking engagements for groups such as P.T.A., civic clubs, 4-H, Newcomers Club, etc.

Your Clothing Dollar

I. Good Buying Practices
   A. Wardrobe Planning
      1. Buy or Sew
      2. Mix and match
   B. Local Store Comparisons—shopping around
   C. Good Consumerism
      1. Sales
      2. Returns
      3. Consumer Ethics

II. Shopping Decisions
   A. Brands, Prices, Workmanship, Store Policies
      1. Applied to terry jackets (Julie's shopping decisions)
      2. Denim blue jean study
      3. Applied to men's shirts

III. Care Considerations
   A. Fabrics
   B. Cleaning
   C. Labels and Care

Author with some of her 8th grade clothing consumers

Goals and Objectives

Upon completion of this unit, students will be able to:

1) Select garments that fit into their wardrobe, can be worn with other clothes they have, and are suitable for the occasions they attend.
2) Judge a sale item according to
   a. quality of construction
   b. whether the price is indeed a bargain
   c. whether it is needed in the wardrobe
3) Read a garment label and/or hangtag, know how the garment is to be cared for, and be motivated to do so.
4) Select a garment with care considerations in mind.
5) Understand the properties of major clothing fibers and know where to find the information they do not know.
6) Be familier with the local stores that sell clothing, the goods and services available, and be able to shop comparatively.
7) Understand how shopping habits affect use of clothing budget.
8) Have knowledge of recommended procedure in returning unsatisfactory merchandise.
9) Consider sewing as an alternative option in acquiring clothing.
10) Increase their knowledge of the clothing construction practices that contribute to longer wear and durability.

Content, Procedures & Evaluation

Section I—Good Buying Practices

This section begins as a student decides she needs and wants a skirt. She shops for skirts and narrows her choice to two garments on sale or to buying fabric and sewing a skirt. The total cost of sewing is considered and also the care of the skirts on sale. (Wool for warmth, but needing dry cleaning, vs. poly-gabardine that is washable and needs no ironing.) She decides to buy the ready-made skirt, and proceeds to select blouses that could be worn with it. She also considers the clothes she already owns and how they can be worn with the new skirt.

A number of students decide to canvass the town for tops and they go to ten different places in town. These places include four department stores, two women's clothing shops, two catalog stores, one used clothing exchange, and a freight salvage store. At this point they look mostly at styles and prices.

This section includes an interview with one of the merchants on what to watch out for in buying a sale item, on imports, on returning merchandise, and on the merits of buying locally.

An interview with the local Police Department is included to point out to students the effect that shoplifting has on the cost of merchandise and to impress on them the significance of the problem.

Activities that may or may not follow this section include;

* Discussion; including students' own experiences
* Computing the cost of a garment made in class and finding a similar garment in the catalog or a store. Making a price and care comparison.
* Doing a wardrobe inventory to determine what is needed and how a new garment would increase the possible combinations.
* A comparison study field trip for the specific garment. This would include making a selection and justifying the choice.
* Exercise to discover the importance of having the garment with you when buying companions. Show students a skirt or pants—then put the garment away and (using fabric swatches) ask students to select 5 shirts that could be worn with the garment. Check out one's own choices in natural light and in artificial light with the skirt and swatches side by side.
* Simulate a problem situation

  You have had a fire and need to replace your winter wardrobe-
  Using $300 and the catalog, find things that can be mixed and matched and will fit your needs.

Section II—Shopping Decisions

In this section three actual comparison studies are done. The first is to choose a terry jacket. The prices of the two jackets are similar, but the colors and mix and matchability are quire different. One of the jackets is part of a coordinated set that has some flaws in construction. An interview with a clerk is included here to explain store policy, especially return policy, in such an event.

A longer study on buying denim jeans follows; three stores are compared, and prices range from $10 to $24. The boys look at fibers and care, at style, sizing and fit differences, at brand names, and at blue jeans on sale. They also consider the effect of status advertising. An interview with a merchant compares 100% cotton with different polyester and cotton combinations and discusses some trade names in finishes. Girls' fit in jeans is also mentioned.

The last study focuses on buying men's shirts. This includes price, fibers, construction, pricing, matching of plaids, and care labels. Garments made in China and other eastern countries are examined. This also includes an interview on pricing and buying policies.

Activities that may or may not follow this section:

* Discussion on experiences students may have had with faulty merchandise and in returning merchandise.
* Ask students to bring "bloopers" to school. (Garments they have purchased that did not wear well, were not well made, could not be worn with many things, did not "feel" good on or did not get worn for some other reason.)
* Use case study situations or role plays on returning merchandise.
* Go to the library to study consumer report information on clothing.
* Field trip designed to find in the stores clothing that is well constructed and/or that is not well made.
* Instructor can arrange to borrow garments from the stores and ask the students to study them in groups and report their finding. (The merchants lead me to poor merchandise as well as good choices and I find them very helpful and not threatened.) (continued at bottom of following page)

A Practical Interdepartmental Approach to Occupational Education

Gloria C. Tanderjian
Assistant Principal
Supervisor of Home Economics,
Thomas Conroy
Assistant Principal of Industrial Arts
Charles E. Hughes High School
New York City

Since 1978 Charles Evans Hughes High School has offered a two-year interdepartmental program in Hotel and Motel Hospitality Management for selected students in the 11th and 12th grades. The departments involved are Business Education, Industrial Arts, and Home Economics.

The reasons for developing such a course were:

- To get students who were "turned off educationally," truant, disadvantaged, potential drop-outs, and handicapped to stay in school.
- To develop entry-level skills so that students, females and males, could seek immediate employment in the hospitality industry,
- To provide a course that would dispel "sex-stereotyping" in the various occupations, and
- To make these students aware of the many career opportunities available to them with additional post-secondary education.

We knew that in order to retain these students in school, we had to accomplish two things: (1) develop a "super" course that would challenge, interest, hold, and meet the needs of the students, and (2) cite evidence that this particular industry really wanted and needed these trained students in entry-level positions.

We also knew that the school was in an ideal neighborhood, the Chelsea area of Manhattan, with access to many hotels, motels, restaurants, institutions, and recreational facilities. Immediate employment opportunities and on-the-job training sites would be available to them.

We found that the New York City Board of Education tax-levy dollars were not available to develop such a course; so in 1976 we wrote a VEA proposal requesting Federal funding for this program.

(continued from page 158)

Section III—Care Considerations

This section includes two in-depth interviews. The first is with the local County Extension Home Economist. She shows the students the printed booklets and information available to them through her office and also explains her job and the extension services. She then shows them a number of fabrics and tells them what went wrong in the printing process. This is followed by a detailed explanation of polyester blends, with some tips on construction and style choices that would be appropriate for each fabric.

The next interview is at the local dry cleaner. The owner shows the students garments that could not be cleaned or washed successfully. He explains the labels and the construction problems (linings or trims of non-compatible fibers that need different care; a shirt made of three different combinations of cotton that, when dyed, took color differently; a washed off label in a sweater that shrunk when washed according to the instructions, and more.) He also offers to give advice on questionable purchases and to share his source of printed information.

Students, armed with the knowledge from all three of these studies then go from garment to garment reading the labels and speculating on the care problems and reasons for care instructions. Some of the labels are faulty (example-"vergin acrylic", hang tags and sewn in labels that are not identical).

Activities that may or may not follow this section include:

* Practice using the references that the extension home economist and the dry cleaner gave us—probably looking up care information for a garment they are wearing or one they bring to class. A teacher-selected garment from the catalog could also be used for this.
* A test—using the references
* Bring "bloopers" to class that have been cared for in inappropriate ways, or that were labeled wrong.
* Laundry experiments; cut out fabric in 2 inch squares and wash and dry in a variety of ways. (Hot water, cold, bleach, hot dryer, hang dry, lay flat to dry, etc.)

Statistical data were collected regionally to show that job opportunities existed in the hospitality industry for entry-level workers. Supportive data were collected from the Mayor's Policy Committee, "Agenda For Economic Development," The New York City Department of City Planning #7505, February 1975; and "Employment and Occupational forecasts and projections in the Service Industry," U.S. Department of Labor, 1977-1978.

To show the need for such a program in a New York City school, we obtained information from the "New York City Long Range Plans (1977-1978) For Comprehensive Occupation Education, Board of Education."

The research findings indicated that the hospitality industry was the fourth largest in the United States, and was growing rapidly. However, it suffered from two major problems—many untrained workers, and high labor turnover.

These findings substantiated the need for our course. We hoped that the proposal would be accepted and approved so that funds would be forthcoming to purchase commercially up-to-date equipment, instructional supplies, textbooks, field trips, food purchasing and teacher's salary.

Criteria for the Program

Seventy-five students were selected for the course by the teachers in the program and the guidance counselors. The criteria used for the selection were: low reading, writing and math scores; poor school attendance, truant record, discipline record, and low socioeconomic level. Handicapped students were recommended by their Special Education teachers.

Description of the Program

The program planned for the 11th year students was a cycled one, meeting daily for double periods (80 minutes). In one term, each student would spend six weeks in each area: office procedures (Business Education), plant maintenance (Industrial Arts), and food & beverage hospitality (Home Economics). At the end of the 11th year (two terms) students would have completed twelve weeks in each department. The speciality of each area was stressed. Students were exposed to the particular career opportunities available in the industry. The latest equipment was purchased, it provided students with realistic training, and developed their skills. Students were also provided with the opportunities for practical application of their learnings and skills in their classes, the types needed for entry-level employment.

In all areas, classrooms were arranged and reconstructed to simulate actual rooms, offices, kitchens and dining rooms, found in the industry.

In the *Office Procedures class*, students were trained in front desk and rear office procedures. They learned how to operate business machines—cash registers, computers, calculators, switchboards, and so on. They also were taught about the legal aspects of the hospitality industry, and personnel management.

In the *Plant Maintenance class*, students constructed a model hotel/motel room. They learned skills in plumbing, electricity, carpentry, painting, wall-papering, carpet laying, ventilation-hot and cold, and maintenance.

In the *Food & Beverage Hospitality class*, all aspects of banquet service and catering were practiced. The actual dining room and commercial kitchen facilities provided students with the opportunity to practice realistic skills in the handling, preparation, serving, storing, safety and sanitation procedures required in food service.

Articulation with Industry, Post Secondary Institutions, and the Community

To provide enrichment to the program, and give students a realistic point of view of working in the industry, there were field trips to local hotels and motels, such as, "The Drake," "The Summit," and "Howard Johnson". A longer trip to the "Concord Hotel" at Kiamisha Lake, New York, provided the students with the opportunity to see a total hotel-resort-recreational facility, and become acquainted with jobs available in the Industry. These trips were made by bus; money for trips was included in the proposal.

To make students aware of the post-secondary institutions offering courses in Hotel Administration and Food Service, they visited the New York School of Dietetics in Manhattan, The New York City Community College in Brooklyn, Sullivan County Community College at Loch Sheldrake, New York, and Paul Smith College at Lake Placid, New York. The latter visit was an overnight trip. Students from Hughes were housed at the "Saranac Lake Hotel." This hotel is operated and maintained by Paul Smith College students in the Hotel Administration program. This was a wonderful learning experience for all—our students and those at Paul Smith.

Students also visited on a monthly basis, the Fulton-Clinton-Chelsea Senior Citizen Center, which is located across the street from the school on 9th Avenue, and the Village Nursing Home located in

Greenwich Village. At these institutions, students had the opportunity not only to get involved in on-site recreational programs with the residents and the senior citizens, but also the opportunity to develop friendships with them. We, in turn, have invited these groups of citizens to the school to spend the day. This type of experience has given the students the opportunity to practice their hospitality skills learned in class. Again, these projects were great, especially since most of the school population was involved; everyone looked forward eagerly to future visits.

Our community has been made aware of our students, the school, and the programs offered here. We think this is an excellent beginning for good school and community involvement and relationships.

Evaluation—A Continous Process

In evaluating the program, at the end of the junior year, we were impressed and delighted with the final findings. We found:

> All students who remained in the program stayed in the program, and elected to sign up for the 12th year.
>
> Attendance figures in all three areas improved; it exceeded 80%.
>
> Of the students that were in the graduating class 75% enrolled in post secondary institutions. Of those who did not graduate, 80% went immediately into training-related jobs, and 20% found other jobs.
>
> Students wrote in their personal evaluations that they thoroughly enjoyed the course, the "hands-on" experiences, the trips (especially those taken outside New York City), and the interdepartmental approach. They also enjoyed the camaraderie which developed as a result of the course.
>
> An outstanding achievement for the program was a Certificate of Recognition to the Hotel/Motel-Hospitality Program for the school year 1977/1978. It was awarded by the Association of Business, Labor, and Education (Project ABLE) after an on-site evaluation was conducted.

Plans for the Future

Plans for the 80's will include high school students spending two or four days, on a rotating basis, at post-secondary institutions observing and participating in Hotel Administration classes. Students will return to their home school and share these experiences with their fellow classmates.

Additional contacts with personnel in industry will be sought to provide graduating seniors with on-the-job training, with hopes that they will remain at the site and be hired, full-time, once they graduate.

We realize that post-secondary institutions are eagerly searching for knowledgeable, talented students, and that industry is also looking for trained, responsible personnel. We believe that the interdepartmental approach may be an answer since it has a two fold effect. It is effective in preparing students to satisfy the above wants, and it helps them strive to reach their maximum potential by providing them with the opportunities and challenges they will encounter in the industry.

As educators, it behooves us to encourage, advise, assist, and prepare students for their careers. We are pleased with the success of the program and eagerly look forward to accomplishing future goals. It took a great deal of time, work, and energy to write our proposal, but considering all the positive benefits the students derived from the program, all our efforts were worthwhile.

Skills For The Mentally Retarded

Eleanor Woodson
Associate Professor
and
Myra Timmons
Assistant Professor
both of Clothing
and Textiles Department
College of Home Economics
Texas Tech University

Are you seeking help with the problem of teaching the educable mentally retarded student to become more productive and, perhaps, employable while serving a room full of "regular" students? Or in finding activities which will challenge handicapped youth in sheltered workshops or occupational programs? If so, the result of a study completed at a Texas state school for the mentally retarded may be of interest.

The study involved a method of teaching a skill using instruction in a media form which other students or paraprofessionals could supervise. Also, subject matter content would not be sacrificed, regardless of the number of times the segment of instruction was repeated. One of the skills we tested was learning to use the sewing machine.

Preparation of Instructional Materials

Two types of instructional materials were developed and tested: (1) 35mm colored slides synchronized with audio taped instructions and (2) super 8mm loop films synchronized with the same tape as used with the slides. A script was prepared which divided the task into simple steps with a description of the planned visual on the left side of the page and the narration to accompany the visual placed at the right.

The following is an example:

Slide 15 View of presser foot	This is the presser foot. You will find it near the needle. It helps to hold the fabric or paper in place as you sew.

In filming, it was important that parts of the machine and steps in the use of the machine were photographed as much as possible from the viewpoint of the seated student and that the model of sewing machine at the school was used. Also, care was taken that long shots preceded close-ups occasionally in order that the individual steps would be considered a part of the whole. The narration was recorded as the task was being performed by one of the researchers in order that the pace would be as accurate as possible. Small screens as shown in Figure 1. were prepared with top and side panels to exclude the light since rear projection screens were not available.

Method of Testing

The two types of instructional materials were administered to twenty-four female students from dormitories for the educable mentally handicapped residents. Although the IQ as well as the chronological age of the individuals was listed, the grouping in the dormitories had been made including other criteria such as social adjustment. Testing was performed individually in the school classroom. Repetition was built into the four sessions in order to measure gain. Each session was limited to a time period of thirty minutes or less since the retarded have a short attention span. Records were maintained not only regarding time required to complete tasks, but also the amount of aid given by the instructor in addition to the media. This aid was recorded as follows:

1. Audio, such as a verbal repetition of the step by the instructor.
2. Visual, such as the instructor pointing to the screen or to a part of the machine.
3. Manual, an example being assistance in turning the hand wheel in the correct direction.

Students received instruction in setting up the machine, threading the head, winding the bobbin, threading the bobbin case, and closing the machine, in addition to marking and stitching.

Since the school desired to develop a type of sheltered workshop, the articles selected for the project were irrigation sleeves which could be marketed in the area. The straight tubes of material which are used to restrict the flow of water to prevent washing of the soil were adapted for the student to learn to mark and sew straight, curved and angled seams.

Results of the Study

Of the twenty-four students starting the project, nineteen finished the four sessions. In general, the students who did not finish the sessions were older than those who finished, four being in the 18-24 age group with an IQ of 30-50. Of those completing all sessions, twelve participants were in the 12-20 age group with an IQ of 40 or above. There was no significant difference in the preference of the students regarding the form of media used.

The irrigation sleeves produced by the students were evaluated as to market quality by the owner of an irrigation company in the area. Ninety-seven percent were judged to be acceptable.

Application

Since there was no significant difference in choice of media used, a teacher could use available equipment, subject to room conditions. A rear projection screen would be a distinct advantage if 8mm loop films were used since the image produced is not as bright as with a slide projector. The screen shown in Figure 1. creates a darkened screen area if it is placed with the back facing the light source. The screen must be white, but there will be less reflected light on the screen if the other panels are a flat black. The screens used in the study were of illustration board sections taped together with a cloth backed tape. If folding the screen for storage is desired, tape only the back sections together as illustrated, leaving a sixteenth of an inch between the sections. Both front and back should be taped for strength.

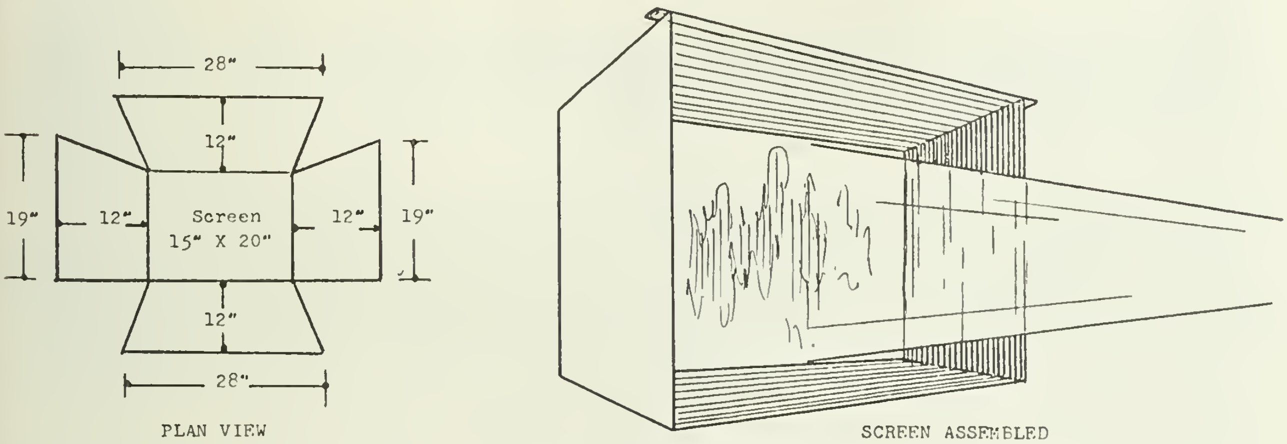

Figure 1. Screen constructed of white illustration board. Reinforcing strip of wood 28½" long is used on top front edge. If folding is desired, separate panels 1/16" and tape on both sides of seams. Top panel will fold against back.

A simple method of holding or stopping and starting the program would be necessary as students vary in their speed of completing steps in the program. The slides with synchronized tape are controlled easily by the individual student or by the person assisting simply by stopping the tape and proceeding when the student has completed the step. If the sound interferes with other activities in the room, headphones may be used.

Positive features of this method of teaching a skill to the handicapped are:

1. The skill can be broken down into its simplest, sequential steps and can be repeated until the whole skill is learned.
2. The student receives stimuli in a number of ways: through hearing, seeing, and touching, all of which reinforce the learning.
3. If a poor memory slows production, the instruction can be reviewed.
4. After the program has been developed, almost any student, volunteer, or paraprofessional can teach the skill.
5. Students usually enjoy operating the equipment. Much-needed social skills can be improved by the interaction with others who in turn have an opportunity to understand better the problems of the handicapped.
6. Since the instruction would be the same for all participants in a project, marketable products would have a degree of standardization.
7. There would be continuity in a program since the materials could be used by persons new to the project.

The techniques used in teaching the mentally retarded to construct irrigation sleeves could be used to teach many skills in the classroom or sheltered workshop. As an example, we have programmed the use of a hand knitting machine. This instruction was used successfully with the mentally handicapped.

If you do not have a camera, there is probably a camera club in your school with members who would view photographing the steps you plan for teaching a skill as a welcome challenge. Speech club members might enjoy doing the narration. After all, the more people you involve in solving the problems of handicapped students, the smaller the problem and the handicap become!

The Later Years: Thinking, Discussing, Planning, Doing

Sam Quick
Assistant Professor of Extension
College of Home Economics
University of Kentucky

Ken Wellons
Associate Director
of the
Multidisciplinary Center
of Gerontology
University of Kentucky

Margie Wilson
Home Economics
Extension Agent
Nicholas County, Kentucky

Everybody's Tomorrow. A decline in the birth rate along with improvements in health care have moved us toward a society in which a greater number and a higher proportion of Americans are in the "older" category. The implications of thise gradual shift will be increasingly felt by all segments of society.

The life expectancy of the average person has increased from 47 years in 1900 to over 72 in 1980. At the turn of the century, people over 65 made up 4 percent of America's population and numbered 3 million. In the late 1970s, people over 65 were 10.7 percent of the population, numbering 22.5 million. By the year 2030, it is estimated that 17 percent of the population will be 65 and over, numbering 51.5 million, or one of every six living Americans. The over-65 club now welcomes nearly 5,000 new members every day, and Americans over 100 years of age number 13,000.

We are all aging; some of us are just a little further along than others. The later years of life can be filled with purpose, acceptance, dignity and joy, or they can be riddled with frustration, depression and despair. If depends upon our attitudes and the support systems that we as families and communities develop. For better or worse, in dignity or despair, old age is everybody's tomorrow.

With the intention of enriching the later years for all of us, the following educational activities are designed to promote a fresh, positive and responsible look at the aging process.

Teaching Techniques

Discover Your Attitudes and Perceptions

Jot down all the words that come to mind when you think about the word *young.*

Now, jot down all the words that come to mind when you think about the word *old.*

Don't be surprised if you find more positive words after *young* and more negative words after *old.* Unfortunately, ours is a society which glorifies youth and too often fails to see the potential beauty, strength and wisdom of old age.

• Think of three friends and write down their initials. Then put their ages or approximate ages next to their initials.

Are these friends in pretty much the same age category as you! Naturally, we often have more in common with those our own age. But do we not lose a great deal if we too frequently isolate ourselves from those much younger and much older than ourselves?

• Look at the picture of the woman. What do you see? Is she young and attractive? Is her head held high? Or is she an older, less attractive person whose head is somewhat downcast? Look again. What do you see this time? How can a group of people look at the exact same thing and yet report seeing something so different? It has often been said that beauty is in the "eye of the beholder." Do you agree?

Speaking Your Mind

Finish the following sentences with the first thoughts that come to mind. Then look over the completed sentences and consider their meaning. If you're in a group, share and discuss.

1. Aging is....
2 Aging is....
3. Aging is....
4. Most elderly people are....
5. The biggest challenge of growing older is....
6. The greatest joy of old age is....
7. Speaking of the aging situation in our country today, if I were president, what I would do is....

Looking into the Future

In this exercise, those of us who are not yet elderly can get a feeling for what it might be like to be an older person. An individual can keep his or her eyes open and participate by reading through the exercise. However, it is much more effective when another person (e.g., a group leader or teacher) slowly reads the following:

"Sit comfortably. Gently close your eyes....Take in a few big, deep breaths....Relax, letting your eyes stay gently closed. Now concentrate deeply and imagine that you are 83 years old....Without talking outloud, and without opening your eyes, answer in your mind the following questions: Where do you live?....Who are you living with?....Are you in good health?....Now that you are 83 years old, who are your best friends?....What is happening in your life?....Are you at peace about growing old, or does it frighten you?....What is most important to you in life?....What sounds do you hear?....What do you see around you?....How do you feel about being old?....Now, let's open our eyes, take a stretch, and discuss what we experienced as we imagined being 83 years old."

An Example to Follow

Think about an older person you have known or have read about whom you very much admire and respect. There are many lessons to be learned from such a person. What kind of attitude does this person have? How does he or she handle the inevitable difficulties of life? Where does this person's strength of character come from? What are some other reasons you have for admiring this individual?

Test Your Knowledge of Aging

This quiz is not easy. Very few people will know enough about aging to answer all the questions correctly. The purpose of the quiz is to teach facts about aging, encourage discussion, and perhaps stimulate you to do some reading and research on your own concerning the facts and fallacies of aging.

Read each of the following statements and circle either "T" for true or "F" for false. You may check your answers by looking at the key at the end of this article.

T F 1. While some decline in mental quickness typically occurs in the later years, overall judgment and comprehension can actually improve with age.

T F 2. Malnutrition and an excessive intake of alcohol are major causes of senility.

T F 3. At least 30 percent of the older people in nursing homes, for all practical purposes, have no families.

T F 4. Most older people lose their capacity for sexual relations.

T F 5. Mental health professionals tell us that the incidence of depression and suicide is quite high among the elderly.

T F 6. Transportation, particularly in rural areas, tends to be a major problem for older people.

T F 7. For every 100,000 people, there are over 20 males age 75 to 84 who commit suicide.

T F 8. Most older people eventually become senile.

T F 9. Research shows that older workers have fewer work-related accidents than younger workers.

T F 10. All five senses normally decline in the later years of life.

T F 11. Less than 6 percent of Americans over age 65 live in nursing homes or other institutions.

T F 12. Old age is a stage of rapid downhill slide in physical capabilities and health.

T F 13. Older drivers have fewer accidents per person than drivers under age 65.

T F 14. Hearing loss, which is common for 30 to 50 percent of all older people, is potentially the most serious of all sensory impairments and can contribute to isolation, anxiety and depression.

T F 15. More than one-fourth of people over 65 live alone.

T F 16. In 1976, there were approximately 110 women over the age of 65 for every 100 men over the age of 65.

T F 17. Older citizens are often the victims of a wide range of misleading business practices.

T F 18. About 80 percent of the aged are fairly healthy and are able to carry on their normal activities.

T F 19. No one is too old to change an attitude, learn a new skill, or create something beautiful.

T F 20. The majority of older people have incomes below the poverty level.

The Wisdom of Age Speaks

Imagine that you go to visit three quite elderly people who are in very sound mind, but who are close to physical death. You question each of them about what they believe is most important in life. What do you think their answers would be?

Questions to Ponder and Discuss

1. How old would you be if you didn't know how old you were? (This is a very important question. You may want to give it some serious thought.)
2. What are the most important three years—the first three years of life or the last three years of life? Explain your answer.
3. Imagine you have been assigned the task of helping a group of youngsters develop a positive and healthy attitude toward aging. How would you go about it? Exactly what would you do?
4. It has been said that how we treat our own parents in their old age will tell us a great deal about how our children will treat us in our old age. Does this make sense to you?
5. The aging of the body eventually ends in physical death—something that unfortunately is often greatly feared. How can we help to ensure that loved ones, as well as ourselves, are able to pass on with a sense of acceptance, peace and dignity?
6. Think about the so-called "generation gap"; but at the same time, try to temporarily forget all that you have heard, read, seen or been taught concerning the generation gap. In other words, let your mind be fresh and open. Now think: Is there any necessity or any really good reason for having a generation gap? Or is this just something we have unwittingly been taught? Do teenagers, for example, really need to rebel against their parents? If we put our minds to it, couldn't we "unlearn" the generation gap? What would be the benefits of doing so?
7. Older people often like to reminisce—to review and talk about their past experiences. This is a normal, healthy and important process. How can we help ensure that our friends and loved ones have adequate opportunities for reminiscence?
8. We all know that the media exert a powerful influence in our lives. Sometimes this influence is very positive and sometimes it is not so positive. What types of messages do magazines, billboards and TV convey about aging?
9. It has often been noted that a spiritual life which is strong and practical is the key to successful aging. Do you agree?
10. What opportunities and services are available in your community for older citizens? What additional opportunities and services would you like to see made available?

Positive Action Is Love Made Visible

There are many simple, yet very effective volunteer-powered programs that can enrich the later years of life. A vision, lots of enthusiasm and some community organizing are often all that are needed for a small local group to launch a program that can really make a difference. Potential projects are limited only by one's imagination. As a way of suggesting possibilities, a few ideas and some existing programs are very briefly described below.

- In Washington State's STEP program (Service To Elderly People), teenagers assist elderly persons by doing heavy housework, mowing lawns and helping with chores.
- North Carolina conducted a successful demonstration project, "Helping Wheels," in which 100 volunteer elderly drivers provided rides for their peers to club meetings, doctor appointments and church services.
- An elderly person might share garden space with a young couple in return for vegetables or lawn mowing.
- An older woman might babysit, or sew or mend for a young mother in exchange for some dinners or transportation.
- "Telephone Reassurance" is an easy-to-start program for regularly "checking in" by phone with older community members. This very successful and now widespread program was developed by a 76-year-old widow.
- "Postal Alert," a unique program in Portland, Maine, uses the mail carrier's regular visits as a way to check up on older community members. Participating older persons are given a sticker to place on their mailboxes. If the mail carrier discovers that the mail has not been picked up after a

(continued at bottom of following page)

Snowflakes, Fingerprints and Secrets

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Snowflakes. Fingerprints. Much alike in many ways. Yet each one is unique. Just like home economists, right?

Children have lived with fingerprints since birth. Their acquaintance with snowflakes depends on residential geography, TV, quiet-time stories and school lessons. Regardless of where youngsters get their background information, snowflakes are no secret. Somehow children find out about them. But not so with home economists! They're an unusually well kept secret. And don't we know that the best part of keeping secrets is deciding if, when and how to reveal them?

MAYBE a good way to start letting youngsters know what home economists are is to let them occasionally peek at professionals working with students in school functions. Perhaps we could also let kids come face to face with home economists handing out food samples, recipes and kitchen advice at county fairs. Or let them watch home economists demonstrating energy conservation techniques at shopping malls.

BETTER STILL, have home economists help young folks work out directly on computer terminals where their weekly allowances for the last six months really were spent or what's inadequate or missing—for their health's sake—in their usual daily eating patterns. Then there'd be flesh and blood home economists talking to the kiddos, even maybe guiding their fingers on the computer keyboard...and the youngsters wouldn't truly see them at all. What a clever way to keep secrets!

The problem is, though, HOME ECONOMISTS DON'T REALLY WANT TO BE A WELL-KEPT SECRET. They *want* young folks—not to mention their parents, teachers and others who introduce people to the major mysteries and small intrigues of life—to know about them and how much they can help with family problems and contribute to making new environments better places to live. And they'd particularly like adults to know that there are different types of home economists specializing in each home and family related area. So for home economists, it isn't a question of *if* their secret existence should be revealed. It's a question of *when* and *how*—preferably soon and effectively.

Reality No. 1

Of course, we have to admit that snowflakes and fingerprints have the tremendous advantage of simply *being*, merely because nature has mandated their existence. No question about it, the *what* of snowflakes and fingerprints is an almost universally recognized part of life and seasonal change. Curiosity about them abounds, but their right to *be* is unchallenged.

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reasonable period of time, the Senior Citizens Council is notified and an appropriate person immediately looks into the situation.

- In widow-to-widow programs, a well-adjusted and experienced widow shares her time and understanding with interested women who have just become widowed.
- Many high school students have adopted grandparents whom they visit, talk with, learn from and help out in any way they can.
- Let your imagination flow. Consider the needs of your community and create some "Old Can Be Beautiful" projects of your own.

Plan A Project

Using the above material as a stimulus for thinking, and keeping in mind what services are already available in your community, plan one or two possible projects designed to enrich the later years of life.

My Personal Commitment

As a small personal commitment to making old age a beautiful time of life, before this day ends, I will....(If a group is involved, it's nice to allow group members an opportunity to share their personal commitments if they wish.)

Answers to Test Your Knowledge on Aging

Items 4, 8, 12, 16 and 20 are false. All other items are true. (The true figures for question 16 are 146 women over the age of 65 for every 100 men.)

Reality No. 2

The situation is vastly different for home economists. They haven't been around very long according to earth-history's yardstick, especially as an organized profession. And while home economists are derived from one of nature's most impressive raw materials—people—they represent a relatively recent and fairly sophisticated evolution.

The *what* of home economists is critical. Their form and function have been quite deliberately structured. But their basic scientific, social and academic models are still being tested for utility, economy. Home economists *are*, but even more significantly, are still *becoming*.

Reality No. 3

So maybe we can learn something from snowflakes and fingerprints! Indeed. About the *when* and *how* to convey our professional essence to family members of all ages by any definition of family. Lessons about timing, exposure, impact, variety and mystery.

What?

It is important to remember that snowflakes and fingerprints begin by *being*. Home economists are still *becoming*. Therefore, the *what* of home economists needs more thinking, fine-tuning—and maybe, on rare occasions, good old-fashioned hammering into better shape. This is entirely reasonable. After all, home economists are as diverse a group of professionals as one is likely to find anywhere.

Subject matter specialties and work environments span an incredible range of interests, talents, life styles, performance arenas. We unify professionally around and through our involvement in seeking alternatives and solutions for home and family related issues, concerns and problems.

Our overall focus on families and family settings, undeniably broad, translates into advisedly elastic boundaries having the inherent flexibility to stretch, contract or totally change shape in response to familial frontiers being pressed by technological and societal change. Shifts in specifics are to be expected. But the *what* of home economists depends less on specifics than upon professional excellence.

The *what* we are *becoming* depends mightily on the professional excellence with which we meet our commitments and challenges. Every day. Excellence lends strength to the profession. It nurtures the professional courage indispensable to searching out and painstakingly correcting our own weaknesses. It permeates that essential intangible, the *what* of home economists. Professional excellence. Part of our uniqueness. Each one of us.

Home economists have marvelous secrets — generally unknown facts about themselves — to share, don't they? From the perspective of professional possibilities, they equal that perennial childhood favorite, the kaleidoscope, in presenting endless variations. There's a veritable pot-pourri of *what's* to tell! *When* do we start?

When?

Snowflakes have been swirling around people for whole lifetimes, even generations. There haven't been nearly enough home economists through the years to permit that kind of intensive coverage for their profession. We've had to be selective in promoting ourselves. Sometimes we've been so busy trying to juggle routine responsibilities that we've hardly had any time to even think about the *when*.

Snowflakes appear mostly and predictably in season; though on occasion, totally unexpectedly. Timing contributes enormously to their appeal. Piling on, easing off. Exposure. Intensive visibility alternating with letting folks wonder where they went. Always coming back strong well before they can be forgotten.

Timing, exposure — and close association with widely accepted people pleasures. Snowflakes and the winter holiday season. Skiing, sledding...and wood fires to warm hands and toes by, to toast marshmallows in, to pop corn...and always with friends laughing, singing, snuggling. Snowflakes and happy times are emphasized. The rest quickly fades from memory. Can home economists plan a *when* calendar to replicate that? Each one of us? Then the public might eventually really catch on to more of the *what* home economists can do!

How?

But *how*, pray tell, do we go about creating the impact, the variety, the mysterious intrigue that come naturally to snowflakes and fingerprints? Do we perhaps try too hard to go it alone?

Does one snowflake have the same impact as a major snowstorm? Still, there couldn't be any kind of snowstorm without that first snowflake. And many, many more following.

Could fingerprints serve as irrefutable evidence of individual identity without the reality of their unlimited variety? Billions of fingerprints. Each distinct and unquestionably different.

Scientists perennially puzzle over snowfall patterns and peculiarities. Detectives marvel at clues to crimes left by telltale fingerprints. Disparate mysteries for sure. Each one fascinating. And even with basic elements in common, each separate problem is unique. What is the message for home economists in the *how's* of snowflakes and fingerprints? Group action, coordinated action, individual identity.

Can home economists, whose assigned responsibilities often consume more hours than are in the normal work day and who often are officed many miles away from professional colleagues, have *group* anything? Definitely. The almost magic answer for finding numbers is *outreach networks.*

We can reach out for supporters to help and encourage us, volunteers to work with us. We can let other people take responsibility, under our supervision, for selected parts of our work — giving plans for action. We can help our network know *how* they can help, listen to their advice, stay in close touch. Meaningfully involved networks become committed supporters. Survival insurance for home economists when the going gets rough. Community shoulders for home economists to lean on. Solid.

Outreach networks can often make real magic happen in financial development, too. Volunteer supporters seem to pull receptive funders for pilot testing program innovations almost out of the air. Well-managed outreach networks and dollars for program delivery. A top-notch combination. This is magic — with groups, coordinated action and individual identity — that home economists can learn to use. Mystery captivates the imagination. Variety multiplies options. Impact gets results. Quite a repertoire of *how's* for home economists!

Reprise on Snowflakes, Fingerprints and Secrets.

Secrets about the exacting professional competence of home economists and the many facets of their home and family-focused discipline exist only because these truths have low public visibility. And public perceptions of the profession, such as they are, are influenced by the *what* of home economists — their sayings and doings in the public presence.

What now? Professional excellence is enhanced through public understanding, extended through outreach networks and magnified through expanding financial resources. Because home economists determine which aspects of their profession are spotlighted. Or if.

There should no longer be any if's about keeping home economists a secret. Only more *what's* to tell. More *when's* and *how's.* Applying lessons learned from snowflakes. From fingerprints. From other home economists.

New Teaching Aids

I have just had the privilege of examining three of a long series of "teaching programs" by the Butterick Publishing Company, entitled *Concepts in Focus*, and I feel that they are worthy of my calling them to readers' attention: The Family Today, Facing Family Stress, and Growing Older. The common features of the programs include a Teachers' Guide, eight study sheets which are ready for your duplicating machine, a wall chart, and a filmstrip with cassette—all packaged in a plastic bag with a hook you can hang over a rod or fold back and put in a file drawer. I am not acquainted with the staff, which includes a consultant, editor, associate editor, writer of teaching materials, production manager, filmstrip producer, and designer.

All Teachers' Guides have an overview and content summary, objectives, detailed instructions to the teacher (which she can skip if they make her/him feel like a clerk), "key words", suggested teaching techniques, the filmstrip script, answers to study sheets, and resources without annotations, including, books, articles, and sometimes sources of information. A list of films would also be helpful, but it is not included.

Strengths of the program which I examined include: variety in teaching techniques, time saving aids in some of the study sheets, pre- and post-tests, the content summary, the lack of bias in presentation and the resource list. I'm not a great fan of film strips but these seem to be at least average. The idea on each wall chart was a good one, but I thought the rendition of two of them was very poor.

Except for the world searches and scrambled words which I think have very little educational value, the study sheets seemed useful and generally suggested activity, e.g., keeping a diary of stressful events, interviewing in the community and sharing findings, watching a TV show or movie and analyzing for relevant content, planning ways that retirees could cut their costs. Many included opinionnaires, case situations, career considerations, check sheets, charts to fill out (e.g., on ways of coping with stress or who performs the various family tasks and responsibilities); and the questions for discussion were usually excellent.

I thought there was over-emphasis on memorizing words and definitions. (Does it really matter whether students trying to understand the elderly are aware that *senescence* means old age, unless your stated objective is building vocabulary?) I think students will be "turned off" if the teacher begins with a list of "Key Words" that must be learned.

The objectives were usually reasonable and sound, in my view, but most were at lower cognitive levels of defining, naming, listing etc. A teacher could add his/her own objectives at higher levels and include some affective ones as well.

Suggested teaching techniques included finding out about professional services to families in the community, requiring reasons for the opinions stated, investigating the purposes and activities of groups like the Gray Panthers, writing a letter to an elderly person at the end of the "unit" to express attitudes about aging, searching the library to see under which categories books on the elderly are shelved, volunteer work, preparing a pamphlet for distribution to the elderly, writing skits, investigating attitudes of other cultures toward the elderly, preparing posters to emphasize the positive aspects of stress, creating one's own support system for the handling of stress, and investigating the relation of stress and illness.

With such variety, a teacher could choose what she/he felt was most important and most effective, combine it with other materials and techniques she/he was already using and build a stronger curriculum.

The address for further information and a list of all the "programs" is given below. The price of each program is $39.00.

Butterick Publishing P.O. Box 1495 Altoona, PA 16603	or	Butterick Publishing P.O. Box 4001, Terminal "A" Toronto, Ontario M5W 1H9 Canada

The Editor

Changes in Economic Aspects of Family Life

Editor's Note: *The author was invited to present this review of research in Washington at Hearings which preceded and prepared for the White House Conference on Families later held in three locations.*

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While the general topic is changes in economic aspects of family life, this discussion emphasizes changes in five major economic aspects. The first aspect is *market roles* and the concern is with market roles of husband-wife families as well as female-headed families. In order to have a realistic discussion of market roles, especially for women, non-market roles in the form of *household task roles* also are discussed.

Two additional and related economic aspects are *work schedules* in the market and *household production* in the home. Both aspects influence not only market roles but also household task roles of family members. The last topic will be *job satisfaction*, which may influence market and household task roles of family members or may be influenced by work schedules or household production.

The discussion that follows is concerned with: (1) knowledge about these five selected economic aspects; (2) issues raised by these economic aspects; and (3) interrelationships among these selected economic aspects.

Market and Household Task Roles

Husband-Wife Families

Market roles. For the period 1900-1940, middle-class white families were expected to have single earners who were male. A woman's primary career in these families was marriage. Middle-class boys grew up thinking of themselves as breadwinners, while girls grew up thinking of themselves as homemakers. In these families, husbands were expected to do work of an earnings nature (work or market roles) and wives were expected to do work of a household nature (household task or non-market roles). During this period, the prevailing attitude was that it was all right for wives to enter the labor market only if they were poor native white, immigrants, or blacks. Women who worked were primarily poor, single, and young (Chafe, 1976).

During World War II, the employment of wives was condoned as an economic necessity. Understandably, during the war period the majority of those who became employed were not only middle-class married women but also were married women 35 years of age and over. While society expected these married women to return to their homes after the war, the majority of them, when asked, indicated a desire to continue working at their jobs (U.S. Department of Labor, 1950).

Even though the percentage of married women in the labor force continued to increase after 1940, traditional attitudes tend to persist about married women's place in society during the next two decades. Since the majority of women, when asked, gave "economic need" reasons for working, it was assumed that their work was of a temporary nature and they would return to their customary role of homemaker when these "economic needs" were met. This meant that society did not recognize that a disparity existed between the behavior of those married women who worked and society's attitudes about the inappropriateness of their having a "working" career.

Historically, labor force participation figures indicate that the percentage of married women in the labor force increased from 15 percent in 1940 to 24 percent in 1950, to 31 percent in 1960, to 41 percent in 1970, and to 49 percent in 1979[1] (Hayghe, 1976; U.S. Department of Labor, 1976). In general, the forties and early fifties could be characterized primarily as a time of one-earner families, the remainder of the fifties and the sixties as a time when multi-earner families were emerging, and the seventies as a time when multi-earner families outnumbered single-earner ones.

During the period from 1940 to 1980 the husband's work or market role has changed from jobs requiring less education and skill to those requiring more education and ability. One type of upgrading

[1]The 1979 figure was obtained from Elizabeth Weldman, Office of Current Employment Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in a telephone conversation.

has been a two-thirds increase in the percentage of those holding white-collar jobs, a small percentage increase in the percentage holding service jobs, and a decrease in the percentage holding blue-collar and farm worker jobs (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1976; U.S. Department of Labor, 1980). Another type of upgrading is illustrated by changes within the major classifications. For example, in blue-collar occupations, the percentage in the craft category has increased, while the percentages in the operative and non-farm laborer categories have decreased. In white-collar occupations, the percentages in the professional-technical and managerial categories have increased, the percentage in sales has remained fairly constant, and the percentage in clerical first increased and then, recently, decreased.

Traditionally, the husband's job is considered to be the main job in the family. In general, his market earnings tend to be higher than his wife's because he is more likely than his employed wife to be in an occupation with high productivity, and, hence, high earnings. In the past, the educational system tended to contribute to his acquiring market skills while his wife acquired non-market ones. In addition, employers tended to be willing to make substantial human capital investments in him. They would not have been as willing to do the same for his wife had she the same type of job as he. No wonder his market price is high relative to hers.

His wife, on the other hand, is likely to have entered a job classified as a "woman's job." For example, occupations that were 90 percent or more female in 1978 included registered nurses, pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers, bookkeepers, keypunch operators, receptionists, secretaries, stenographers, telephone operators, and typists (U.S. Department of Labor, 1979b). These women's jobs are classified as relatively low productivity jobs; hence, earnings are not as high as earnings in men's relatively high productivity jobs.

Employers are unwilling to invest as much in women as men because they do not regard them as "permanent" workers. It is true that while the labor force participation rates for men over their working years is an inverted U-shaped curve, that for women is an M-shaped one. But, it also is true that participation rates for women have tended to increase through the years from 1940 on, so that today about one-half of all married women are in the labor force. In addition, the percentage of women leaving the labor force as they have children has not dropped as sharply as in the past (Kreps and Leaper, 1976; U.S. Department of Labor, 1979a).

Married women are often characterized as being primarily part-time workers. The figures do not support this. For example, during the twelve months of 1978, 56 percent of the married women had some work experience. Of this group, 67 percent were full-time earners with 43 percent working all year (50-52 weeks) and 24 percent working less than the full year. The remaining 33 percent were part-time workers with 21 percent working 27 weeks or more, and 12 percent working less than 27 weeks.[2]

Household task roles. Married women, whether they work or not, all have another role to fill in the household. It is the household-task role which can be very time consuming. Broadly defined, it includes not only all food and house care activities but also all family care activities.

Since increasing numbers of married women were working in the sixties and seventies, what happened to the total household work time in these families compared to earlier years? Did it decrease greatly because of improvements in household technology?

Relatively little historical data are available, except for farm families. However, a 1926-27 study of Oregon urban homemakers is available. Comparing this 1926-27 study with a 1967-68 study of homemakers in New York State, the findings indicate that the average amount of time spent for all household work was similar (Walker and Woods, 1976). While time spent in food perparation was less in the 1967-68 study than in the 1926-27 study, time spent in selecting and buying convenience foods increased so that, on balance, the average total time was similar for the two periods.

If the total number of hours of household work time has not decreased, have married women who entered the labor market had help from husbands with their work? Findings from three surveys in this country in the sixties and seventies provide answers; these three studies are used because their findings are based on time records or diaries of respondents rather than estimates of time spent on all or selected household tasks by them.

The first study is the 1967-68 study by Walker and Woods (1976) referred to above. While it did not use a national sample,[3] time use data were collected over a year to allow for seasonal variation. Their findings indicate little household task help from either husbands or other family members. For example, husbands of both employed and non-employed wives averaged 1.6 hours a day on house-

[2]The 1978 figures were obtained from Allyson Sherman Grossman, Office of Current Employment Analysis, Bureau of Labor Statistics, in a telephone conversation.

[3]The sample was of 1,296 households selected randomly from households stratified by urban-suburban location (Syracuse, New York and nine suburbs of the city) and 32 patterns of family composition.

hold tasks. Other male and female family members average .1 and .3 hours per day for non-employed wives, respectively, and .1 and .4 for employed wives. The change in the total number of household work hours came in the adjustment made by the wives, with non-employed wives spending an average of 8.0 hours per day and employed wives an average of 5.3 hours per day, or about one-third less time.

For wives, the number of household work hours decreased as the number of hours worked on the job increased (Walker and Woods, 1976). Those working 1-14 hours per week spent 7.3 hours daily in household work; those working 15-29 hours per week spent 6.3 hours; and those working 30 or more hours per week spent 4.8 hours. Almost one-half of the wives in this study were employed 30 or more hours per week. These women seemed to have a very long day of employment time plus household work time.

For husbands, the relationship between household work hours and job work hours was the same as that for wives; husbands' household work hours decreased as their hours of employment time increased (Walker and Woods, 1976). When they worked under 40 hours per week they contributed 2.1 hours daily if their wives were not employed, and 2.2 hours daily if they were; when their hours were 40-49, they contributed 1.7 and 1.6 hours, respectively; when they were 50 or over, they contributed 1.2 and 1.3 hours, respectively. No significant adjustment seemed to have been made in their hours when their wives were employed.

Perhaps working wives' loads weren't as heavy as they seemed. Perhaps the kind of household help received from their husbands was different. Findings indicated that about three-fourths of the time spent by husbands was spent on marketing, non-phyisical care of children, special (as compared to regular) care of the house, and yard and car care (Walker and Woods, 1976). Except for yard and car care, the amount of time husbands spent on these tasks was the same irrespective of whether their wives were working or non-working. About one-third less time was spent on yard and car care by husbands of working than non-working wives, and this time was spent on regular care of the house. In addition, the only other difference was in food preparation. Husbands averaged some time each day on "after meal cleanup" if their wives worked, but not time on this task if their wives did not work. Overall, the situation wasn't that much better for working than for non-working wives.

The second American time budget study uses national data from the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan's survey of *Americans' Use of Time in 1965-66.*[4] The respondents kept complete diaries of their activities for a single day in the fall of 1965 and winter and spring of 1966. The findings from this study are reported by Robinson (1977). They are similar to those of Walker and Woods. Robinson found that for all husbands the figure was 1.6 hours per day of housework. Employed women spent 4.1 hours per day on household work, while non-employed wives spent 7.6 hours. It is interesting that Robinson's figures are that similar to those of the Walker and Woods' study considering differences in definition of household work, geographic location, and methodology. It should be pointed out that husbands in this study put in over 10 hours more per week working than did wives, with an average of 50.9 and 38.8, respectively.

Since wives received relatively little household task help from husbands and children, were there other sources of regular, no-cost help available to her? Relatives, friends, and neighbors were potential sources. Findings from several past studies indicated that working wives who reported receiving major support from relatives were less likely to share the performance of household tasks with their husbands than working wives who did not have this help (Scinovacz, 1976). When relatives lived in husband-wife families, husbands were not likely to help their employed wives with housework. As a general rule, only a small percentage of families with working wives could expect regular, no-cost help with household tasks from relatives, friends, or neighbors. If they received such help, then help from husbands was reduced or non-existent.

Robinson (1980) reported more recent findings from a 1975 update of Americans' Use of Time by the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.[5] Employed women spent 3.5 hours per day on household care, while non-employed women spent 6.9 hours. Compared with their counterparts in 1965-66, employed women in 1975 spent, on the average, about four hours less per week in household care and non-employed women about five hours less.

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[4]The sample was a national restricted one. It consisted of 1,244 adults who were 18-65 years of age, lived in cities having a population over 50,000, and had at least one person employed in the labor force for over ten hours a week.

[5]The sample of 1,519 adults was a national probability sample of people 18 years of age or older. The respondents provided time use data for a single day in each of the four seasons. In order to compare data with the 1965-66 survey, which was a restricted sample (footnote 4) of *Americans' Use of Time*, information will be presented only for those 1975 respondents who met the same qualifications as those in the 1965-66 survey.

What was the reason respondents spent less time in household care in 1975 compared to 1965-66? Was it because a larger percentage of women work, had smaller families, and were under 30 years of age? (Level of education was not a reason because there was no systematic difference in the relationship between house care and education.) When the above differences were taken into account, Robinson (1980) found that all women in the 1975 survey still spent about 2.5 fewer hours weekly in household care than those in the 1965-66 survey. This difference was significant (.05 level) and the "constancy of housework" phenomenon found in previous comparisons was not supported. The reduction in household care time was greatest for regular cleaning and maintenance activities, which should be affected by technology. Shopping, cooking, and child care also showed small declines.

Was the reduction in household care time reported by women due to an increase in household care time reported by men? Robinson (1980) found that this was not the case. The findings indicated a decrease (of about 5 percent) in household care work by men between 1965-66 and 1975, after differences between the two periods were taken into consideration.

The evidence presented in the three studies indicates that working wives who have "dual careers," especially if their "earning career" is 40 or more hours a week, have to put in very long hours because of the limited help they receive from husbands, children, relatives, friends, and neighbors. Much has been written about the stressful situation that results, and the adaptation difficulties that arise in family life from this situation. What additional things can be done to lessen working wives' heavy household task load? Numerous alternatives have been mentioned.

One alternative is that families could have still fewer children because the hours spent on household task by wives increase with the number of children. But, when is the optimum size of family reached?

Another alternative is that husbands could increase the time they spend in household tasks, thereby reducing that required by wives. However, evidence from studies (Walker and Woods, 1976 and Robertson, 1980) indicated that husbands work fairly long hours; this is especially true for those who work more than 40 hours a week. With the long workweeks of a large percentage of the husbands, their relatively low contribution to household tasks still leaves them with a heavy combined work and household task load.

Still another alternative is the delegation of certain household tasks such as child care and the provision of food preparation, clothing care, regular house care, etc., to private or public organizations outside the family. The solution of public child care, such as nursery or day care, is of little help in the present since, to date, sufficient public support has not been generated for this purpose. If working wives are working because of unfilled "economic needs" of their families, then the solution of turning over the above mentioned household tasks to private organizations may not be realistic because of costs. In addition, the market price for the performance of these services could be much higher than the non-market price of working wives' performance of them.

Another alternative is for working wives to reduce the number of hours they work on the job, thereby reducing the heavy load of their dual careers. Whether this has caused working wives to look for jobs with fewer numbers of hours in the first place or to reduce the number of hours they are working in their present jobs is not known. The labor force participation figures given earlier indicate that only one-third of married women work part-time for either a full year or less than a full year. If a satisfactory way existed to reduce still further the household task load of working wives, the response of these wives to hours worked for their employers would provide additional insights into the supply of labor of working wives. In addition, it also might provide insights into why there is not a negative relationship between husband's income and percentage of married women in the labor force, assuming that husband's income is a good indicator of "economic need."

Another alternative suggested by some is to reduce families' high standards and levels of consumption. Less money then would be required so that the need for wives to work would be reduced, at least for those working because of economic needs. From the data, it is evident that working wives, especially those working full time, have very heavy combined work and household task roles.

Because of this situation, decisions must be made by families on how best to allocate husbands' and wives' time between work on the job and household tasks. These decisions will influence not only the size but also the composition of the labor force. Decisions also will have to be made on how best to allocate family members' time within the household. These decisions will influence the well-being or, if you will, the quality of living of family members (Kreps, 1976).

Female-Headed Families

Market roles. To date we have been examining roles of husband-wife families, but the problems of work and household task roles are particularly acute for female-headed families. In 1978 14 percent, or one out of every seven families, were families headed by women (Johnson, 1979). Black women and Hispanic women were over-represented as female heads of families. Female-headed families are more likely than husband-wife families to have low incomes. In 1977, the median income of female-headed families was one-half that of husband-wife families. Female-headed families are more likely to have children under 18 years of age than husband-wife families. Sixty-three percent of female-headed families have about 10 million children living with them, or 17 percent of all children. About one-fourth of these children are under six years of age. Female-headed families are more likely than husband-wife families to be in poverty, receive transfer payments from governmental agencies, live in central cities, rent their living quarters, and live in public housing (U.S. Department of Labor, 1978).

About three-fifths of the women who have families are in the labor force (Johnson, 1979). These women tend to be solely responsible for their family's economic well-being. Therefore, they are more likely to be working or looking for work than are married women living with their husbands or all other women who are not heads of families. They tend to have higher unemployment rates than married women in husband-wife families. Those women in female-headed families who work are concentrated in relatively low-skilled, low-paying jobs. Compared with women who work in relatively high-skilled, high-paying occupations, these women are often in dead-end jobs, where turnover is high and jobs are more subject to seasonal and cyclical fluctuations of the economy.

What type of jobs do women who head families have? The majority are in clerical, operative, and service occupations (U.S. Department of Labor, 1978). Those in clerical occupations are mostly file clerks, cashiers, typists, office machine workers, etc. Many of the operatives work for companies manufacturing clothing as sewers, stitchers, and examiners. Many with service jobs work as private household workers and cleaning women, cafeteria workers, waitresses, and nurses' aides.

One explanation of why females who head families are employed in relatively low-skilled, low-paying occupations is their level of formal education (U.S. Department of Labor, 1978). Today, most jobs require at least a high school education, but about two-fifths of females who head families have not finished high school. The corresponding figure for working wives would be about one-fifth. Usually labor force participation rates increase as the level of education of women increases. Labor force participation rates of females, who head families and who are the major source of earned income for their families, should be higher than they are. Obviously, the low-educational level of many of these females is one explanation for their average labor force participation rate of about three-fifths.

Household task roles. In addition to having less desirable occupations, the tendency is for women in this group to perform most of their own household tasks (Ross and Sawhill, 1975). This puts strain on them as a result of their "dual careers." Because their incomes are low, it is very difficult for them to purchase many of the household task type of services. Those females who are either unemployed or not in the labor force tend to find it difficult just to perform their household tasks at a minimum acceptable level. Would more of them enter the labor force if their schedules could be flexible?

Since one-parent male-headed families made up less than 3 percent of all families in 1978, had less than 2 percent of children, and had incomes that were two-thirds higher than one-parent female-headed families, they do not present the problems that female-headed families do (Johnson, 1979). Hence, their work and household task roles will not be examined.

Issues

What are some issues concerning market and household task roles? For husband-wife families, one issue is concerned with single vs. multi-earner families. Do other roles, for example parental, differ as number of earners in the family differ? Findings are not definitive. Additional studies are needed.

Another issue concerns inequality in the acquiring of human capital skills by sex. Sex discrimination exists in terms of opportunities for improving job skills, entering or upgrading occupations, and wage and salary incomes received. It also exists in terms of society's attitudes regarding job skills, occupations, etc., for women as contrasted with men. Some studies have provided information regarding degree of discrimination but more are needed.

Another issue concerns the special economic and family problems of female-headed families. Studies have shed light on the magnitude and severity of the problems. More studies centered on suggestions and programs for alleviation of the problems are needed. Long- as well as short-run solutions are required.

For working women in all types of families, studies indicated that the length of their combined job and household care workweeks are onerously excessive; it cannot be conductive to ther optimum development. Studies on possible solutions to this problem and their outcomes are needed.

Work Schedules

The third economic aspect is work schedules. From the discussion of market and non-market roles of two-parent and one-parent female-headed families, it is apparent that more flexibility in the scheduling of men's and women's work could produce beneficial results. One example of greater flexibility is a compressed workweek, which is usually a four-day 40-hour workweek instead of a five-day 40-hour week.

Another example is flextime (also called flexitime), which permits the scheduling of the "normal" 40-hour workweek in more than one set of hours for employees. Usually flextime has core hours common to all employees, and then flexible hours at other times. Flexibility may be in terms of a day, week or month (Glueck, 1979). Another example of greater flexibility is job sharing, when usually two persons share the same job at different times.

Why is flexible scheduling important to families? Compressed time would allow more time in the form of three-day weekends for non-market household tasks to take place. In addition, it could encourage increased household production. In husband-wife, full-time earner families, it would enable husbands and wives to complete many household tasks, such as waiting for an appliance service repair person, during a weekday. However, mothers with young children would be at a disadvantage four of the five weekdays when they worked 10-hour days. On these days, they probably would be too tired for child care activities or much household work (Best, 1978).

Unlike compressed time, flextime would allow some time each weekday to schedule personal appointments. It could provide added family time each weekday and could enable mothers to spend late afternoons with their children when they come home from school. If both husbands and wives are in jobs that permit flexible scheduling, much more time could be spent with their children by one or the other of them. Morgan (1977) feels that flextime will be more popular in the future than compressed time because overall it appears to be less costly and easier to implement than the other options of alternative work schedules.

Job sharing would be particularly beneficial to mothers. It would enable more mothers to enter the labor market. If job sharing were to become accepted for high-ability, high-paying jobs, it would encourage some mothers, who otherwise might not be there because of unattractive job opportunities, to enter the labor force. Some women who have been working full-time only because their high-ability, high-paying jobs are not available for less than 40 hours a week might elect to work part-time under a job sharing arrangement. This could result in an improvement in their and their families' quality of living.

Issues

What are some issues concerning flexible scheduling? One issue is whether flexible scheduling increases workers' productivity and their satisfaction with their jobs. Findings from some studies (Best, 1978 and Glueck, 1979) indicate that this has happened in some cases. However, most feel flexible scheduling has been in effect for too short a period of time and is still an option for only a small proportion of those in the labor force so that a definitive answer of its effects on productivity and satisfaction cannot be given at this time.

Another issue is whether flexible scheduling changes non-working activities of workers. Findings from blue-collar workers on four-day workweeks indicated participation in the same activities as similar workers on five-day schedules (Maklan, 1977). One major difference between the two groups was that almost twice as many four- as five-day workers were actively involved with their children, and they spent two to three times more time with their children. What effect this had on workers' feelings of satisfaction with their families and parental roles was not determined; this needs to be done.

Still another issue concerns workers' preferences for time spent at work vs. time spent with family. When workers in a national survey (*The 1977 Quality of Employment Survey*) recently were asked about their preferences for reduction of working hours in favor of spending more time with the family, from two-fifths to somewhat over one-half of the men and women preferred less time working and more time with their families, even if it meant having less money to spend (Quinn and Staines, 1979). More than one-half of the women who lived with both husbands and children expressed this preference compared to two-fifths of those who lived with their husbands and had no children in the household. Only a very small percentage of both husbands and wives expressed a preference for more time working and less time with their families. Some feel that findings of this type provide evidence that changes in life styles are taking place for a significant group of workers and that these changes will conflict with rigid schedules of work.

Household Production

Household production[6] is the next economic aspect. How do families aquire household production? Many of the household task activities of family members, primarily women, result in the production of goods and services that will be consumed or used by family members. A few examples of production in the household are meal preparation, washing windows, making clothes for family members, and cutting the children's hair.

The amount of household production of goods and services has varied over time. A great deal of former household production has been transferred to the market. For example, income and market conditions permitting, preferences of family members may result in eating out, hiring janitorial service to wash windows, buying clothes in retail stores, and taking children to barber and beauty shops. So when household production decreases, the purchase of goods and services on the market usually increases.

Some, like Bird (1979), feel that more and more household production will leave the home and take place in the market. This will create new jobs that are now done in the home without money changing hands. More two-paycheck families would result. Others, like Manning (1979), feel that families whose members do not engage in some forms of household production will lack something in cohesiveness.

The stage in the family life cycle influences how much time is spent in household production by families. Some researchers, like Murphy (1979), have found that number of children, age of youngest child, and employment status of wives are most closely related to time use for household tasks. Age, education, and wage and non-wage income of husbands and wives also influence the amount of time spent on household production activities by family members.

Time spent in one activity is not available to spend in another one. For example, if five hours of wives' time are used for household production, then these hours are not available to use for market production. The wives have, in effect, given up money that could have been earned by spending these five hours working in a job (Walker, 1979). Conscious decisions should be made by families on the allocation of their members' time between production activities in the household and in the market.

Household production is important to families because it may increase, by an appreciable amount, the total income of many families. It is particularly important during a period of inflation or depression. It may enable families, who have a high level of household production, to consume more goods and services than their money income would permit in either of these situations. In other words, it may increase the real income of families. This is particularly true for older retired families. Household production cannot be dismissed as being of negligible economic importance. Studies generally estimate the value of household production activities as equal to 30 to 50 percent of gross national product (Murphy, 1979).

When married women enter the labor market, they and their spouses may think of the benefits of the gross income earned and the added costs of child care, transportation, clothing, and the like. But, they are not likely to think of the loss of some household production which takes place when women are employed outside the home. This is a cost just as much as child care is. Therefore, the net gain to families from wives' employment outside the home may not be as great as initially anticipated.

Issues

What are some issues concerning household production? No one disputes that household task activites of famtly members, primarily women, result in the production of goods and services. However, unlike the production of goods and services for the market, the production of goods and services for the household has not been given a dollar value and become part of the Gross National Product. Hence, the tendency has been to undervalue this production (Glaser-Malbin, 1976). Full-time housewives, when asked what they do, sometimes say "I'm only a housewife." If a dollar value were placed on production in the household, housewives and other family members would be in a position to place a more realistic value on their time spent in the production of goods and services in the home.

Other issues concern the definition of household production and the methodology used to place an economic value on it. Before a dollar value can be placed on household production, it is first necessary to define the concept and then determine a method[7] to use to place a dollar value on it.

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[6]Many definitions of household production exist. Reid's (1934) classic definition is as follows:

> "Household production consists of those unpaid activities which are carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods, or paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions, and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group."

Her definition does not include all non-market production; it excludes all activity which cannot be replaced by market goods or paid services. While Reid (1934) and a number of others would not consider leisure to be an economic activity, and, hence, not include it in household production, others such as Nordhaus and Tobin (1972) would consider leisure to be an economic activity. Whatever definition is used, it should provide for the classification of the many, many specific activities carried on by family members as contributing or not contributing to household production.

[7]Two major methods are available to value time. These are market cost method and opportunity cost method. See Murphy (1979) for a discussion of methods.

Why are both definition and method needed? They are needed as a basis for discussing the economic position of housekeeping women. You simply cannot discuss intelligently the economic value of wives' household production without first placing a value on it. Some advocate pension credits for homemakers under Social Security, but to justify their contribution to the economic system and to determine the benefits to be received under the system, we must be able to place a dollar value on their household production. In addition, both definition and method are needed for the implementation of programs passed by the legislature to benefit families, especially for certain subgroups of the population such as one-parent, low-income families and husband-wife, low-income families 65 years of age or older.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is our last economic aspect. Historically, our labor force was thought to be "guided" by the Protestant work ethic or by middle-class work norms and values. In recent times, especially in the past 10 to 15 years, the commitment of those in the labor force to the work ethic has been questioned. It was felt that many workers were in jobs that under-utilized their high skills or high abilities. As a result, they were frustrated and dissatisfied; their productivity declined. In addition, it was felt that this frustration and dissatisfaction spilled over to their nonworking lives (Flanagan, Strauss, and Ullman, 1974; Quinn and Mangione, 1973; U.S. Congress Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, 1972; Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1972).

Labor unrest in the form of apparent high labor turnover, increased strikes, increased absenteeism, and decreasing output per man-hour, especially since the mid-60's, was cited as evidence of worker alienation. However, according to Wool (1973), there is not enough objective evidence about these forms of labor unrest to conclude, at this time, that the nature of workers' jobs has caused rising discontentment among workers. Others would not agree with Wool.

One way to determine whether workers, on balance, are discontent or frustrated or alienated with their jobs is to look at the findings from studies which have asked workers about the level of satisfaction with their jobs. According to Locke (1969), job satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between one's perceptions of the job and his value standards; or put another way, Locke (1976, p. 1319) feels that "job satisfaction results from the appraisal of one's job as attaining or allowing the attainment of one's important job values, providing these values are congruent with or help to fulfull one's basic needs." Since job satisfaction is, in part, a function of workers' job values, it seems an appropriate concept for use in determining the appropriateness of characterizing workers as being "disenchanted" with their jobs.

What do studies indicate has happened to job satisfaction of men workers over time? The results of seven national surveys of workers[8] from 1958 to 1973 indicated that the percentage of "satisfied" workers[9] ranged from 81 percent in 1958 to 92 percent in 1964. It was 91 percent in 1973 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974). Gallup Surveys also obtained information about the percentage of satisfied workers during the period from 1963 to 1974. Data for men 21 through 65 years of age indicated that the percentage "satisfied" ranged from 87 percent in 1965 to 92 percent in 1966 and 1969. The figure for 1973 was 88 percent. National data for 1978 from 3,692 randomly chosen households were supplied by Campbell.[10] Findings indicated that 80 percent of the men workers were satisfied, 11 percent dissatisfied, and the remainder were neither. In all of the surveys, only a small percentage of working men indicated actual dissatisfaction with their work.

What do studies indicate has happened to job satisfaction of women workers during the past two decades? On the one hand, more and more women have chosen to enter the labor force, indicating a preference for working. On the other hand, a large percentage of these women work in low-paying, sex-segregated occupations. On balance, how satisfied are they with their jobs? In five national surveys,[11] the percentage of "satisfied" women workers[12] was high, ranging from 81 percent to 93 percent (U.S. Department of Labor, 1974). In four National Opinion Research Center general social

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[8]The organizations conducting the national surveys and the years of the surveys are as follows: National Opinion Research Center, 1962, 1964; Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1958, 1969, 1971, 1973; Survey Research Center, University of California, 1964.

[9]For a definition of "satisfied" in each survey, see U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Research Monograph, No. 30, Appendix A.

[10]The findings were supplied by Angus Campbell, University of Michigan, in a telephone conversation. The survey was conducted by personnel from the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

[11]See footnote 8. Data for women not obtained from the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, in the 1958 survey and from the National Opinion Research Center's survey in 1964.

[12]See footnote 9.

surveys from 1973 to 1976, the percentage of working women who were "very satisfied"[13] ranged from 57 to 66 percent for middle-class working women, and from 50 to 60 percent for working class women. Not unexpectedly, women whose husbands were employed in white-collar occupations had higher levels of job satisfaction than women whose husbands were employed in blue-collar occupations (Wright, 1978). National data for 1978 were supplied by Campbell.[14] Findings indicated that 80 percent of the women workers were satisfied, 10 percent dissatisfied, and the remainder were neither.

Using data from the National Longitudinal Surveys[15] for the years 1967, 1969, 1971, 1972, the percentage of women who were employed at all four survey dates and who were "highly satisfied"[16] ranged from 58 to 70 percent for white working women, and from 47 to 60 percent for black working women (Andrisani, 1978). In all of the studies, as was the case for men, only a small percentage of working women indicated dissatisfaction with their jobs.

Because of their occupational distribution, it would not be surprising to find that women's levels of job satisfaction are lower than those of men's. What do the data indicate? The findings for working women and working men for six national surveys were presented above. In four of the surveys (1962, 1969, and 1973, and 1978), the men were somewhat more satisfied than the women, whereas in two of the surveys (1964 and 1971) the women were more satisfied than the men. In only one year (1969) was the difference (of 7 percent) significant. In the other five years, the differences were small (2 or 3 percent). Additional analyses of the 1973 data indicate that while, in general, men and women have similar levels of job satisfaction, one sub-group of women do not. Working women with one or more children under six years of age have lower levels of job satisfaction than working men with one or more children under six years of age.

When working women also have to assume the non-market activity of household tasks, how will this affect their satisfactions with both activities? In the 1965-66 University of Michigan "Use of Time" survey, respondents were asked to think of the things they enjoyed most during the day. The data were presented by educational level. The categories were less than high school, high school graduate, and some college or more. The percentages of working women giving work related activities as most enjoyable were 19, 18, and 36 percent, respectively. The percentages giving housework were lower; they were 10, 8, and 2 percent, respectively. Using the broader definition of household tasks, which included child care activities and shopping, the percentages were 24, 25, and 10 percent, respectively. Using the broader definition, a larger percentage of women mentioned household task activities than work activities as being most enjoyable except for the college group of working women. By comparison, when asked to mention least enjoyed activities, a much larger percentage of working women in each group mentioned household task activities than mentioned work activities (Robinson, 1977).

In the 1971 University of Michigan "Quality of American Life" survey, working women were asked (Wright, 1978) the following: "Apart from the money, which do you think is more important to you personally—your housework or the work for which you are paid?" Almost one-half of the working wives whose husbands were in blue-collar occupations indicated housework was more important, one-fourth indicated the paying job was more important, and the remainder checked both. The corresponding proportions for working wives whose husbands were in white-collar occupations were four-tenths, three-tenths, and three-tenths, respectively. As would be expected, middle-class women felt somewhat less enthusiastic about household tasks than did working class women. However, the proportions choosing housework were rather high considering the narrow definition of housework which included only things like cooking, sewing, and keeping house. It will be interesting to see what, if any, changes take place in the proportions of working women checking housework in 1981 and later years.

It should be pointed out that even though working men and women indicate an overall feeling of satisfaction with their jobs, findings from studies indicate dissatisfaction with specific aspects of their job, such as pay and opportunity to exercise initiative.

Findings from still other studies indicate a relationship between satisfaction with life and satisfaction with job. Some studies find that life satisfaction influences job satisfaction. Some studies find the reverse relationship. More research needs to be done in this area.

Issues

What are some issues concerning job satisfaction? One issue is the extent to which job satisfaction

[13]Other categories of satisfaction were moderately satisfied, a little dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied.

[14]See footnote 10.

[15]The sample was drawn and interviews conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

[16]Other categories of satisfaction were somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, and highly dissatisfied.

is a good indicator of the degree of contentment-discontentment among workers. At present, the answer is not conclusive. Job satisfaction appears to be as good as other measures being used today.

Another issue concerns the similarity in the extent of job satisfaction among men and women, especially since a large percentage of women are in low-paying, sex-segregated occupations. What is the explanation? Apparently the alternative of household activities is not the explanation, nor is differing sex expectations about the merits of different occupations. Much more research is needed before we can answer this question.

Another issue concerns the relative desirability of household activites and work activities. Will housework narrowly defined continue to be more important to women or will changes take place over time? Clearly research will be needed to answer this question in future years.

Interrelationships

Now let's look at some interrelationships among these economic aspects. People have a given amount of time each day to use for market work, household tasks broadly defined, leisure (some would include in household task production), and sleep and rest. Less time spent in one of these broad types of behavior means more time available to spend in one or more of the other three types.

On the market side, time scheduling, either by compressed time, flexible time, or job sharing, is one way of either freeing blocks of time for other purposes or improving the quality of time available. On the non-market side, more time can result by transferring some household care activities to public or private organizations; this provides additional time for any of the other types of behavior. The transferring of some activities may result in increased satisfaction with other activities, including job satisfaction.

On the market side, workers may receive satisfaction from their job as they provide goods and services for the market and receive money income with which to purchase these or other goods and services; if workers have a net increase in productivity, for example, because of flexible time, more goods and services will be forthcoming and money income could increase. The increased income could be used to transfer some household care activities from the home to the market, etc. If workers receive more satisfaction from their jobs, they may be more satisfied with other of their activities, such as household production.

On the non-market side, family members, primarily wives, engage in household care tasks. These often result in household production. This household production is a form of non-money income, and increases the real income of families. Some household production may substitute for goods and services that would otherwise have to be purchased on the market. These examples give an indication of some interrelationships that could exist among market roles, non-market roles, work scheduling, household production, and job satisfaction.

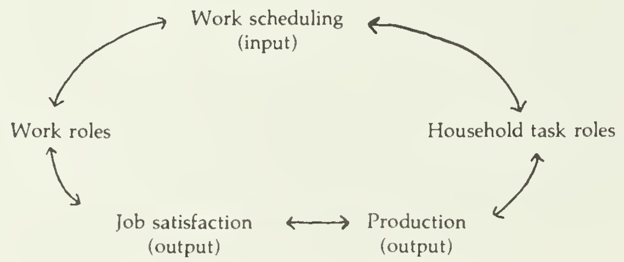

Figure. Interrelationships among selected economic aspects.

In a dynamic sense, the figure below indicates the interactions taking place among the economic aspects. While the discussion in this paper was confined to satisfaction on the job, satisfaction also is derived from the performance of household tasks. Similarly, production takes place both on the job and in the household, while scheduling can take place both on the job and in the household. Lastly, tasks performed on the job and in the household, in a sense, compete for the limited time of the wife.

From the discussion above and the figure, the interrelationships among all of the economic aspects should be apparent. All aspects are important in a discussion of changes in economic aspects of family life.

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Ideas That Worked!

Using Sculptures to Teach Human Relationships

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Teaching in the areas of child development and family relationships presents special challenges, since it is often difficult to discuss emotions and interpersonal relationships in a classroom setting. Pictures and slides may help to stimulate interaction, and films can be even more effective, especially those that are designed to be discussion vehicles. But each of these media lack some of the qualities which engender communication that the medium of sculpture can provide. The statement of the sculptor-artist is often a strong one that is transmitted immediately and can generate response.

During a recent class presentation on maternal-infant bonding practices and other current research dealing with the nature-nurture theories, the use of a variety of sculptured pieces added a new dimension to the student reaction. The visual and tactile response enhanced the identification of emotions being discussed.

The objects d'art were copies of works of recognized artists, and they were on loan from the Cornbelt Library System of Central Illinois. They included:

"Together" by Helga Meyer
"Adam and Eve" by Zavel Silber
"Fertility Doll" (arifact copy)
"Motherhood" by Grete Schuller
"Head of a Baby" by Jules-Aime Dalou
"Wedding Rings" by Peter Lippman-Wulf
"First Step" also by Peter Lippman-Wulf

The sculptures were placed on various tables around the room, and the students were encouraged to touch them and talk about them. During the presentation the physical attitudes, the subjects and the mood reflections were cited to illustrate the information from the research being reported.

There are many other pieces of sculpture which could be utilized in teaching. The presence of these art forms in the classroom for a period of time after the lesson(s) in which they were used could provide aesthetic interest in the room, and they may also reinforce the learnings from the lesson through stimulating recall of the topics discussed and feelings identified.

The resources of your local library may prove to be a gold mine of materials to enhance your teaching at little or no cost.

A New Resource for Teachers—and it's Free!

People Power: What Communities are Doing to Counter Inflation

order from
U.S. Office of Consumer Affairs
621 Reporters Building
Washington, D.C. 20201

This 8½x11 volume of over 400 pages includes "success stories" of almost 100 local groups and "brief mention of hundreds of other projects and organizations which have set examples for others to follow." Consumers can "fight spiraling costs and provide their neighbors with low cost, needed services." The projects described have common goals: to save consumers money, to promote self reliance, and to share a spirit of commitment and cooperation.

There are sections on food, housing, energy, and health. Appendices list and describe Federal programs and offices and the National Consumer Cooperative Bank. Chapter titles follow:

Food
(1) Finding Marketing Alternatives
(2) Growing and Processing Your Own Food
(3) Providing Food and Better Nutrition for All
(4) Fighting Food Inflation—The Comprehensive Approach

Housing
(1) Building Together-How to Get Housing You Can Afford
(2) Repairing, Maintaining and Managing Housing
(3) Helping People Find a Place to Live
(4) Standing Up for Homeowner and Tenant Rights
(5) Getting Help for Housing and Community Development
(6) Providing Housing, Jobs and Credit
(7) Fighting Housing Inflation on All Fronts

Energy
(1) Conserving Energy
(2) Using Renewable Sources of Energy
(3) Educating the Public on Energy
(4) Providing Alternative Transportation
(5) Fighting Energy Inflation: The Comprehensive Approach
(6) Reforming Electric Utilities

Health
(1) Providing Alternative Health Care
(2) Identifying Specialized Health Services
(3) Emphasizing Health Education and Self-Care
(4) Increasing Citizen Participation in Health Planning
(5) Winning Health Care Power

Consumer Education Outside the Classroom

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"I can't understand how people can be so careless." Thus spoke a student enrolled in a consumer economics class at the University of Illinois. That student had just finished working a semester at the Central Illinois Consumer Services (CICS) which is a not-for-profit student organization on the campus for the purpose of handling local consumer complaints. The student couldn't understand how an intelligent person could sign a contract for $200 to a health club and then realize the next day that she didn't have the money to spare nor the time to use the health club enough to get her money's worth. Now she was calling CICS to see if they could help her get out of the contract.

Another student said: "There should be a law against that! The business told him it would only cost $58.00 to fix his car; or. Now they won't let him have the car back unless he pays the bill which totals over $100.00. How can they do that?" The students agree that working as a consumer and business mediator at Central Illinois Consumer Services is a learning experience.

History of Central Illinois Consumer Services (CICS)

CICS originally began operation in 1975 as a project of the Graduate Student Association at the University of Illinois. They wanted to establish a service which would provide an outlet for dissatisfied consumers in the local area. The service operated as a small volunteer group from the Graduate Student Association until 1977 when two full time employees were funded under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). When the funding ran out in July 1979, it looked to be the end of the service. The Service opened its doors September 1979 with funding from the Champaign-Urbana Student Association and staffing from students enrolled in consumer economics classes from the Department of Family and Consumer Economics in the School of Human Resources and Family Studies. Students who have completed a consumer economics prerequisite course are able to get credit under a consumer economics internship for their work at CICS.

How CICS Functions

The complaint handling procedure is similar to that used by other consumer complaint agencies. Complaints are taken either by letter, telephone or walk-in. The student worker fills out the consumer complaint using a standard form and then contacts the business the complaint is against, either by phone or mail. Following the response from the business, the consumer is contacted and told the results. The consumer is then asked if he/she is satisfied with the response of if he/she would like the CICS to contact the business again on his/her behalf. Often a case will require four or more calls to the consumer and business; while for other cases, an agreeable solution can be reached for both consumer and business after only one call.

The case load by types of complaints for the 1979/80 academic year is also similar to that of other complaint handling agencies. The number one complaint in regard to frequency is auto repair. Auto repair service problems are followed in frequency by poor quality service involving such items as: home remodeling, bug extermination, and lawn care, and by problems involving magazine subscriptions. Even though CICS operates out of a campus address, approximately 90% of the case load came from consumers in the local community with the remaining 10% of the complaints from university students. This high percentage of local consumer complaints was probably due to use of TV public service time to advertise the services of CICS.

What's Ahead

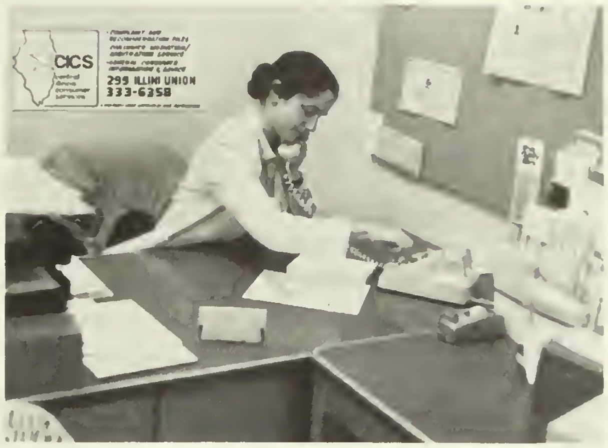
The response from students working at CICS has been positive. The students feel that they learn through the mistakes and problems of other consumers. Also, they learn to apply first hand the information provided to them in the classroom. Quite frequently, the student worker must refer a complaint to another agency. The knowledge gained in class regarding local, state and federal consumer protection agencies becomes immediately valuable. Further, the CICS students feel good when they know a consumer has been helped and when a business thanks them for helping solve a consumer communications problem.

Plans for the academic year 1980/81 call for extended hours as more staffing is available and an advisory board composed of persons from community businesses and university educators. In addition, the CICS students are planning to provide consumer information as well as after-the-fact complaint handling.

For More Information

Teachers in high schools or colleges, interested in more information regarding implementation of a volunteer consumer complaint handling service may contact the author for additional information.

Staff member handles "walk-in" consumer with complaint.



Student Director takes a complaint call.

Complaint Projects for High School Students

While high school teachers and students may feel that setting up a consumer complaint agency such as CICS is too involved, there are other alternatives for high school students to take part in the consumer complaint process:

1. Volunteer for established local consumer agencies. Contact the Chamber of Commerce or Better Business Bureau to see if they would be willing to use student volunteers on Saturday or after school.
2. Conduct a consumer complaint survey to discover local consumer problems. Students can survey other students and consumers to find out areas and topics where they have experienced consumer dissatisfaction.
3. Write a complaint letter. The letter can be of a personal nature regarding a complaint the student wishes to file or he/she can write a complaint letter for a friend or member of the family.

Helping Students to File a Complaint

The filing of a complaint by students can be an educational and rewarding experience. Most consumers feel the need to complain about a good or service at some time. However, few people actually take the time to file a complaint in person, over the phone, or by letter. Taking the time to file a complaint is a consumer responsibility. Companies need to be alerted as to product or service problems in order to correct defects.

What should be in a complaint

Whether the student files the complaint in person, over the phone or writes a formal letter, certain facts must be organized in order to insure that the problem has been communicated in a clear fashion.

—Names and addresses of all individuals and firms involved

—All identifying numbers: credit card, model number of product, account number

—Dates of purchase, payments, returns, refund, telephone calls, etc.

—Copies of contracts, receipts, cancelled checks, repair bills, warranties, and other correspondence related to complaint

—The nature and brief description of the problem or what happened: poor service, faulty merchandise, discourteous service

—The action you want the person or store to which the complaint is directed to take: refund, repair, substitution

Where to direct the complaint

Once the complaint is organized the student is ready to begin at the first step.

STEP ONE - Take the complaint to the store at which the item was purchased and if possible to the same salesperson. If no satisfaction is received, ask to see the store manager. Take the complaint to the consumer service or complaint department if available in the local store. If no success, go to Step Two.

STEP TWO - The next step is to write the manufacturer of the product. If the complaint is service related, write to the main office of the company or department store chain. Direct the letter to the Consumer Affairs Department or, if none is listed, to the President of the Company. (To locate a company address the student can get assistance at the public library.) If this does not bring a satisfactory solution, the student may need to turn to a third party mediator.

STEP THREE - Third party mediation such as CICS may be available at the local level through the Chamber of Commerce or a local Better Business Bureau. Some cities, e.g., Chicago, have their own Consumer Affairs Department to assist local citizens. Maybe a local TV station or newspaper runs a consumer action line you can turn to for assistance. On the state level, assistance may be available through a State Consumer Affairs Office or the State Attorney General's Office which is the situation in Illinois. On the national level there are private trade associations which mediate for consumers. (See list under Addresses of Third Party Trade Associations.)

STEP FOUR - An additional step would be to send a copy of the complaint to the appropriate agencies which should be alerted to a consumer problem. While federal consumer protection agencies do not as a rule get involved in individual consumer complaints, the student may feel that the complaint warrants the attention of the appropriate agency. Some agencies have toll-free hotlines and regional offices you can contact. (See the list under Federal Agencies by topic of complaint.)

STEP FIVE - If the complaint is still unresolved, the student's last resort or step is to sue in court. If the money involved is under $1,000 (amount varies from state to state), the student could use the Small Claims Court. In most states the consumer is not required to hire a lawyer. The court process does take time, but if the complaint is valid you can have your "day in court".

Third Party Trade Associations

Where to Write for Aid

APPLIANCES

Major Appliance Consumer Action Panel (MACAP)
20 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, Illinois 60606
Toll-free number: 800-621-0477

AUTOMOBILES

Automobile Consumer Action Programs
National Automobile Dealers Association (NADA)
1640 Westpark Drive
McLean, Virginia 22101
(Ask for the address of the nearest AUTOCAP.)

CARPETS

Carpet and Rug Industry Consumer Action Panel
P.O. Box 2048
Dalton, Georgia 30720

DRY CLEANING

National Institute of Drycleaning
909 Burlington Avenue
Silver Spring, Maryland 20910

FURNITURE

The Furniture Industry Consumer Advisory Panel (FICAP)
Box 951
High Point, North Carolina 27261

Federal Agencies

Where to Write for Aid

ADVERTISING
Bureau of Consumer Protection
Federal Trade Commission
Washington, D.C. 20850

AIR TRAVEL
If Bumped or Lost Baggage, etc.
Office of the Consumer Advocate
Civic Aeronautics Board
1825 Connecticut Ave., NW
Washington, D.C. 20428
Hotline: 202-382-7735

AUTO SAFETY AND HIGHWAYS
Office of Public & Consumer Affairs
Transportation Department
400 Seventh Street, SW
Washington, D.C. 20590

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration
Hotline, toll-free, 800-424-9393.
In Washington, D.C., call 426-0123.

CONSUMER AFFAIRS
Presidential Assistant for Consumer Affairs
U.S. Office of Consumer Affairs
621 Reporters Building
Washington, D.C. 20201
202-755-8830

CREDIT
Bureau of Consumer Protection
Federal Trade Commission
Washington, D.C. 20850

FOOD, DRUGS AND COSMETICS
Consumer Inquiry Section
Food and Drug Administration
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Maryland 20852

FOOD (meat, poultry, and eggs)
Assistant Secretary for Food & Consumer Services
U.S. Department of Agriculture
Washington, D.C. 20250

FRAUD
Bureau of Consumer Protection
Federal Trade Commission
Washington, D.C. 20850

MAIL
Consumer Advocate
U.S. Postal Service
475 L'Enfant Plaza, SW
Washington, D.C. 20260

PRODUCT SAFETY
Bureau of Information & Education
The Consumer Product Safety Commission
1111 18th Street, SW
Washington, D.C. 20207
Telephone toll-free, 800-638-8326.
In Maryland, 800-492-8363
Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, 800-638-8333

WARRANTIES
Division of Special Statutes
Federal Trade Commission
Washington, D.C. 20580

A Further Reference:

A report evaluating complaint handling in the United States in regard to federal, state and local government agencies, private trade associations, and volunteer complaint handling groups is available free. To ask for a free copy of the report entitled, *Consumer Complaint Handling in America: Final Report,* write to:

U.S. Office of Consumer Affairs
626 Reporters Building, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20201

Preparing FHA/HERO Sponsors through Preservice Education

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"Learning by doing" is the approach taken by prospective home economics teachers at The University of Texas at Austin to learn to become FHA/HERO advisors. In an introductory methods course in home economics education, STUDENTS FORM THEIR OWN IN-CLASS CHAPTER to study ways effectively to integrate FHA/HERO into the curriculum. Many of these prospective teacher/advisors were never involved in high school home economics classes or in FHA/HERO. This experiential learning, therefore, provides students the opportunity to gain the knowledge and skill necessary to meet one of their responsibilities as seconday school home economics teachers, that of organizing and sponsoring an FHA/HERO chapter.

Chapter Activities

Students begin by studying the history, philosophy, purposes and symbols of the FHA/HERO organization. Then, using materials and methods suggested by the national and state associations, the students organize their own chapter in class. They elect and install officers, prepare a yearbook, and practice parliamentary procedure. Students use the "Impact" process to plan chapter meetings on topics already established in the course outline. For example, one topic covered in the course is "professionalism." One class elected to invite a local supervisor of secondary school homemaking programs to speak to them on "Characteristics and Responsibilities of the Professional Home Economics Teacher."

Chapter meetings and most activities are conducted within the class. Chapter activities have included: (1) a trip to the state education agency to become acquainted with the state director of secondary vocational homemaking education and her staff; (2) a panel of area and state FHA/HERO officers who discussed their perceptions of the chapter advisor; and (3) a chapter project which included landscaping an infant care center that is part of a local school district's parenting education program. To record their activities, students compiled a pictorial scrapbook and submitted an article for publication in *Texas Future Homemaker*. Students continue their experience with FHA/HERO by completing individual "Encounter" projects.

How Students Benefit

By the end of their second methods course, students perceive themselves to be more knowledgeable about the FHA/HERO organization at all levels, better prepared to organize and integrate a chapter into the home economics curriculum, and more confident about their abilities to use materials and methods suggested by the state and national associations. When asked to comment on the benefits of this in-class method of studying FHA/HERO, students have made statements such as:

> "It was a great experience to learn about FHA/HERO by organizing a chapter in class. I feel well-prepared to act as a sponsor of this organization."
>
> "I knew nothing about FHA/HERO before we formed a chapter in class. I learned what FHA/HERO is, how it functions as an organization, and how it is integrated into the students' classroom. I also learned how to organize a chapter when I begin teaching."
>
> "Going through the "Encounter" and "Impact" processes was a great help in understanding them and knowing how to use them."
>
> "Actually forming a chapter made learning about FHA more interesting."
>
> "I learned management skills, possible problems, and benefits of being active in this organization. Without this experience I don't think my knowledge of FHA/HERO would have been as real to me."

Summary

Problems encountered in using this way of teaching about FHA/HERO have been minimal, and students' suggestions have been used to improve it. Students now begin their study of the organization early in the semester to allow more time for individual "Encounter" projects and a class project. More time is allowed in class for program planning based on the established course outline. Because students are very busy with their studies and other organizations, relatively little time is spent outside of class on FHA/HERO activities. This method provides prospective teacher/advisors with a model

(continued at bottom of following page)

An Effective Self-Instructional Strategy For Secondary Students*

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Because learning centers are an excellent way to individualize instruction, they are particularly suited to students with communication difficulties, those who are low achievers, or those who need structured learning experiences. Not only are they highly effective for special needs learners who have been mainstreamed into the regular classroom, but also for regular and gifted or talented students. Learning centers can be adapted to accommodate the visual, audio, kinesthetic, or other special learners, or to provide enrichment activities for the gifted or talented learner.

The learning center method utilizes a problem centered activity approach that generally minimizes communication in a structured "hands on" situation; it also permits student freedom and independence. A learning center is developed from clearly defined behavioral objectives which identify direction and may include the conditions under which the activity is performed and the criteria against which the student performance is judged. It consists of a compactly arranged set of materials and directions that fit into one of several areas of the room. Within the learning center, places must be provided for completing activities, storing materials, and turning in completed work. The basic characteristics of a learning center include: 1) **Directions** for using the center (these directions can be illustrated through drawings or if reading is a problem to students, placed on audio tapes); 2) **Activity or task cards** (instructions on what to do, how to proceed; how and where materials may be obtained; what to do when work is completed; and how to evaluate); 3) **Samples and models** (representing an acceptable standard. They should include a sample completed by a student); 4) A variety of **media** (slides, filmstrips, transparencies, charts, posters, realia, texts, pamphlets, and/or other materials); 5) **Scheduling devices**; 6) **Record keeping devices** (a master checklist which includes the names of students and objectives, activities, and evaluations completed); 7) **Evaluative devices** (scorecards, checklists, worksheets, tests, or others indicate the extent to which a student has achieved the objectives).

A learning center can be developed for subjects which can use a variety of paraphernalia, such as visuals, realia, samples, models, or examples. In some cases, the subject revolves around an activity which can be completed independently but requires specific equipment. Laboratory equipment may be needed for many skill areas; in this case, an individual task directs the student to complete that activity in the laboratory. If special resources are needed, the student may be directed to select appropriate references in the media center. Following the identification of learning activities, materials are collected and activities prepared. Finally, schedules, record keeping devices and evaluation methods are identified and prepared. The learning center is arranged logically to facilitate the learner in completing the activities with as little assistance as possible.

Learning centers offer many advantages for fostering a desirable learning environment. By including all the recommended components, optimal conditions for learning are provided. When planning the learning center, consideration must be given to the learning styles of the students. Adjustments may have to be made to accommodate special learners. For example, the audio special learner may need to have instructions or other instructional material read by a peer or have that information placed on audio tapes.

Since the learning center includes all the necessary elements to accomplish an objective, the learner can spend as much time as is needed on an independent basis. Although learning centers emphasize individualized instruction, they can foster cooperation through the use of peer tutors. If desired, competition can be developed through optional or required tasks.

Learning centers can incorporate discovery learning through activities of investigation or experimentation. There is a natural compatibility between learning centers and learning packages.

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*Reprinted by permission from Indiana Media Journal, Summer, 1980

(continued from page 188)

for integrating FHA/HERO into the classroom when they begin teaching in secondary school home economics programs. The methods and materials suggested by the state and national FHA/HERO associations become familiar, and future use of them is facilitated.

Rather than offering mostly reading and writing exercises, learning centers place emphasis on "hands on" activity-based learning. This method promotes the special interest of individual students by including suggested optional or enrichment activities. The more capable, interested student is encouraged to continue learning on an independent basis. Students may assist the teacher in developing learning centers.

There are some commercially developed learning systems that encompass most of the components that have been identified. Generally, they include video slides or tapes, audio tapes, worksheets, evaluation devices and an equipment-needed list. For the most part these have been developed in vocational areas such as technical and health occupations education. The student spends as much time as is needed to receive instructions while viewing examples, demonstrations and procedures. Most of these systems allow the student to stop the instruction at any point, complete an activity and continue or repeat the instruction as needed. The student can work independently without assistance from the teacher. Most of these systems are costly but provide optimal conditions for learning for the self-motivated student. Teacher-made learning centers are time consuming to develop, but can be designed to fit each unique learning situation.

In constructing learning centers, there are several techniques that work effectively. By using heavy gauge poster board that is hinged together, the bi-fold or tri-fold can stand alone. By making a cut down the center of a two-by-four board a stand can be made for the heavy poster board. If a place is available for hanging, drapery rods with rings can be used to hold the posters. Peg-board readily adapts to learning center displays. Although the learning centers described and illustrated have utilized poster board or fiber board, many learning centers might include only materials and supplies with basic instructions and evaluative devices. Frequently, these are collected into "boxed lessons" or centers to facilitate storing.

Ideally, a teacher needs a variety of instructional activities taking place simultaneously to meet the varied needs of the learners. This can be accomplished in many ways; one such method is to include learning centers. One learning center generally accommodates four to five students at a time; therefore, unless several centers are available, the teacher will need to organize the instructional period in other ways.

While preparing methods and materials for in-service training meetings in Indiana on "Mainstreaming Special Needs Learners in Consumer and Homemaking", the author designed four learning centers that served two purposes: the centers enabled the participants to develop competency in four areas relative to teaching special needs learners; the technique demonstrated the use of learning centers as an effective self-instructional method. The centers utilized a variety of activities and media to illustrate the wide range of possibilities. These centers have been utilized in graduate and undergraduate classes as a stimulus for students to develop their own centers.

In order to encourage teachers to develop their own learning centers, the author created a "Mini Package on How to Develop a Learning Center". Instructions for some of these centers have been developed by the **Indiana Curriculum Materials Center,** Terre Haute, Indiana. Learning centers which enabled students to develop basic food shopping skills were developed by Mrs. Cynthia Evers, Elkhart Career Center. These centers, "Be a Smart Shopper—Plan Ahead", "Be Wise, Read Labels", and "Be ¢ensible, Compare Prices", have been field-tested for use with students with low verbal abilities. Mrs. Linda Sorenson, West Lafayette High School, just completed a learning center, "Sewing Terms", to teach students basic techniques in staystiching, trimming, grading, finishing seams, and understitching. These and other centers have been well received by teachers.

The development of learning centers takes time. Teaching takes time, learning takes time. The use of learning centers is a self-instructional method which enables the learner to work at his/her own pace, to explain the concepts to another learner, to become more self-directed, to integrate with other types of learners and to be motivated. By using this self-directed method, the teacher can devote more time to assisting other students and developing plans.

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An Approach to Teaching Nutrition to Children and Youth

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Because the nutritional inadequacy of diets, from adults to young children, is a national concern, a current educational trend is to teach nutrition from preschool through high school. There are two basic factors that must be recognized as contributing to the problem of teaching nutrition. First, most elementary and secondary teachers have little, if any, education in the science of nutrition; therefore, they often neglect nutrition in the curriculum or merely "cover" it superficially. Generally the home economics teacher is the most adequately prepared person in the school to teach nutrition, but she/he only reaches a portion of students and these are at the secondary level. The second factor relates to the lack of the establishment of a hierarchy of nutrition concepts within the curriculum. Many teachers have heard students say, "Oh, we studied that last year." Despite the fact that students have studied certain concepts, they often have not mastered the concepts, or changed their behavior in light of new information.

The purpose of this article is to suggest a manageable method of working toward a solution to this problem. One basic consideration is that whatever learning experiences are planned to teach nutrition education, the learning should be enjoyable. Including pleasurable experiences in relation to the study of nutrition should motivate the individual to develop sound nutritional health habits. Learning Centers facilitate the individualization of education. Through careful planning, activities can be established to be completed independently, in teams, in small groups, or by the entire class. By including some optional activities, the more motivated students can increase their learning through activities that permit greater depth.

As a result of a Nutrition Education Project this past year, I developed several learning centers for preschool, elementary, and secondary students. Initially, basic objectives were delineated for the formation of nutrition concepts in children. Following this, experiences were identified to facilitate the learning of these concepts. The learning centers were designed with the establishment of a hierarchy of nutrition concepts to increase the probability that the experiences would be challenging. Specialists in nutrition, educational methodology, and media were part of the development team.

Each learning center was based on the identified nutrition concepts for a given level and included all materials with suggestions for additional activities. The learning centers consisted of self-storing, portable, tri-fold cases with instructions for the teacher on setup, activities, and supplementary activity options.

For example, one learning center was developed to enable students in the middle elementary grades to identify foods that make up a balanced meal. A mobile of food models was hung under the title of the learning center. The mobile included foods representing the recommended number of servings from each group to be included at each meal. (Since children are generally unable to govern their food selection for a whole day, breaking it down to each meal simplified the concept.) Other activities in this center include judging each of three meals illustrated - a breakfast, lunch, and dinner -with a scorecard. Next the students listed foods eaten in their most recent meal and rated it using the same scorecard. In addition, a dice game was developed, "Score the 1-1-2-2 Way," as a "fun" way to reinforce the basic concept being taught. Other commercial card games were available for optional activities; art could be included by having students illustrate foods eaten or by having them write a story about their favorite meal or foods.

Activities in the other learning centers that were very appealing to the children included puppets representative of the four food groups, mystery boxes with plastic food models, utilization of the five senses to identify foods, flannel board stories using story book characters and food pictures, snack cape (worn by the teacher) including nutritious and non-nutritious snacks, games adapted for teaching nutrition concepts, and quizzes with bells and buzzers for correct and incorrect responses.

In the development of any teaching method, it is important to use existing materials. Some companies have produced excellent aids that foster the development of nutrition education concepts. Among commercial aids that might be used are plastic or picture food models, games, flannel board materials, films, workbooks and storybooks.

Teaching nutrition education through the use of learning centers utilizes those with expertise in

(continued at bottom of following page)

Stimulating Divergent Thinking in Junior High Career Education

Charlotte Ranke
Home Economics Teacher
Albright Middle School
Villa Park, Illinois
and
Ellen M. Champoux
Associate Professor
Home Economics
Northern Illinois University

The junior high school student is in an excellent position to receive the exposure and necessary guidance to build effective thinking behaviors that can aid in future problem solving. Further, these young persons are at a stage in life where career education offers a promising answer to the current call for educational reform. Career education attempts to provide students with insight, information, and motivation concerning specialized training as well as reducing the gap between unrealistic educational programs and career needs.

The career education concept addresses three areas: "learning to live in society, learning to make a living, and learning to think and direct one's life." (Illinois Office of Education, p. 3) Well-planned and well-taught career education implements self-awareness and decision making, and establishes the foundation for managing one's life.

According to Illinois guidelines (Bode, p.2), the career education program at junior high level focuses on occupational exploration. At this age exploring occupational "clusters", occupations that are related because they include similar skills and knowledge requirements, can prepare students for entry into an "area" of occupations rather than any specific one. The career-oriented curriculum at junior high level usually incorporates a number of "hands-on" experiences.

We decided to teach career education and try to stimulate divergent thinking at the same time. Divergent thinking occurs in the process of solving a problem in more than one way. The individual is encouraged to contribute his/her own ideas and direction in solving the problem. Divergent thinking uses established facts as stepping stones for further implications or for making unique associations. (Hall and Paolucci, 1970, p. 208.) Among the methods that stimulate divergent thinking are inquiry-discovery teaching, questioning, brainstorming, attribute listing, morphological analysis, and synectics. (Feldhusen, et al, pp. 111-123.)

Even in career-oriented home economics classes, teaching is quite often teacher-centered. The teacher makes most of the decisions, gives all of the demonstrations, assigns job responsibilities to students, and evaluates student performance based on tests, job performance, cooperation, and cleanup. In a curriculum developed to stimulate divergent thinking, the function of the teacher is to identify or help identify and state problems for class solution. In the next step, the student is directly involved in making decisions that will solve the problems. The student will find the recipe, demonstrate the food preparation, submit a job application and be interviewed for the job of his/her choice, as well as share in the evaluation of his/her performance.

Home economics has long been concerned with the enhancement of daily living, which in itself is one of the primary goals of career education. However, using home economics as an area for job exploration at the junior high school level is relatively new.

The idea of developing a career-oriented teaching unit with emphasis on teaching for divergent thinking was explored at Albright Middle School in Villa Park, Illinois. The unit was planned to provide opportunity for eighth grade students to explore a career using the knowledge and skills that had been developed in their home economics class.

Two weeks were given to the introduction to career planning and deciding on the career area with the remainder of the unit (4 weeks) spent with hands-on experiences. Each career had a culminating activity, a goal which became the focus of classroom objectives. Two groups ran restaurants—a gourmet restaurant by reservation only and a fast food buffet. Parents, faculty, and staff were invited into the restaurant atmosphere set up during the lunch hour in the home economics classroom. Another group chose to operate a hospitality service. This group contracted with the statewide

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(contined from page 191)

nutrition, educational methodology, and media. It makes learning enjoyable by providing exciting activities that build on previous concepts in a logical order, thereby facilitating the development of sound nutrition concepts. Since the centers are portable, they can be used in many settings while enhancing the individualization of education.

Career Education Conference to bake the pastries and serve as hostesses during the coffee hour for the 350 guests attending the conference. The fourth group chose to form an interior design team and was provided a $200 budget by District No. 48 Board of Education for the renovation of the faculty room at the junior high school. The newly decorated room was presented to the teachers in a dedication ceremony attended by the interior design team and the faculty of the school.

Divergent thinking in two classes was stimulated by the use of the methods mentioned earlier. Questioning became the most frequent and most important method for encouraging divergent responses. A question which could be answered with a simple "yes" or "no" did not offer opportunity for new thought. It was necessary to devise questions that involved higher levels of thinking and the teacher found it essential to make careful and extensive preparation in planning questions for independent and critical thinking on the part of the student.

Examples will show how some of the various methods were used. For instance, the interior design team made decisions which determined the types of hands-on activities they would be involved in for four weeks. They purchased and reupholstered a second-hand sofa; constructed pillows, placemats, and macrame plant hangers; painted walls, covering one with a flowing graphic design; cleaned and added decorative trim to kitchen-type cabinets; and laminated a folding screen and bulletin boards with attractive textured burlap.

During the planning stage, this team was challenged by questions such as:

- What is the room used for?
- What color do you think of when you are hot?
- What color reminds you of a rainy day?
- How would you paint a room to resemble a rainy day? A sunny day?

Questioning combined with attribute listing (a chart which shows the development of new ideas

The Albright Hospitality Service wearing part of their uniform made following assembly-line production methods.

The cutter. Each student was responsible for making one part of the uniform.

The presser and inspector. This student was responsible for pressing and inspecting the finished product.

Interior design team removing cabinet doors to revarnish them.

from common sources) resulted in the development of creative ideas for the use of common materials to decorate portions of the faculty room.

- How can we use rubber to decorate the floors? To decorate the walls?
- How many kinds of rubber are there that we could work with?
- What would be the advantages of painting the floor?
- What type of fabric has texture? Where could we use texture in this room?
- What type of wall decoration could be made from these balls of yarn?

Problem solving coupled with questioning was used to produce a needed solution when the interior design team ran out of bright blue paint to finish the trim around the door. By using the problem-solving method, a solution was found:

1. *Identify the problem:* Find paint to finish the door trim.
2. *List possible solutions:*
   - Buy more paint
   - Try mixing our own
   - Paint trim to match walls
   - Use orange paint and repeat it somewhere else in the room
   - Use all leftover paint by painting the trim in thin stripes
   - Leave it the color it is
3. *Analyze the solutions:* Each solution was analyzed by its pros and cons. We could afford to buy the paint but would not be able to complete the paint job in one day.
4. *Make a decision:* The team decided to paint the trim a mellow orange and pick up the color in the graphic on the wall.
5. *Evaluate decision:* Did it work? Would you do something different next time? Some responses were: The color blended better than any other we had. A darker color would have hidden finger marks.

Another example, this time from the group in hospitality service. The students had used the inquiry-discovery method to find recipes for their wares. They had prepared samples and made decisions about what they would sell. However, the students thought the profit margin from the sale of the pastries was too small and the question arose: How can we make more money from our investment? Brainstorming produced the following ideas:

- Cut costs by skimping on ingredients such as nuts
- Charge more for the product
- Sell baked rejects to students as seconds
- Improve quality control
- Sell a cookbook with the pastry recipes in it

The final suggestion drew a favorable response and started another series of questions:

- Who would buy our cookbook?
- What could it sell for?

The effects of having only eight students in class for a brainstorming session are positive. All ideas could be heard, recorded on the chalkboard, and discussed. Suggestions included sale of the cookbook to parents, classmates, and faculty; possibly setting up a lunchtime sales booth in the cafeteria or having salespersons canvas for sales. One student suggested, "Why not sell them to the guests at the Career Conference who will be eating our pastries?" The idea was accepted. One student's father offered to print the recipes free of charge. All seventy-five copies were sold at twenty-five cents apiece netting the students an extra profit.

It was evident that the careful and extensive preparation in planning the questions and activities to stimulate divergent thinking paid off. A great deal of enthusiasm was generated by offering each class a culminating activity toward which goals could be set. The students themselves offered comments of evaluation on their experience as evidenced by these from the interior design team:

"I tried many careers: cleanup, painter, upholsterer, carpenter. I didn't like the precision involved in upholstering the sofa. My favorite job was painting the mural. It gave me a chance to try out new ideas."

"I found it difficult to work with other people on a group project, I guess I'd better find a job where only I am responsible for it."

"I began to realize how important color is and enjoyed using my imagination even if my idea wasn't picked."

"Decorating is a hassle. I'm going to be a nurse."

"I never though of separating a room into different areas like rest, work, and eating. It makes sense to look at all the functions of the room."

In presenting real life problems base on careers, students were required to use a wide range of creative, conceptual, and logical thinking abilities. By becoming active participants in the decision-making aspects of the career they chose, the students were encouraged to use divergent thinking to solve problems as they developed.

Bode, Sandra J. *An Illinois stage plan for career education.* Wheaton, Illinois: DuPage Career Education Center, 1977. (Mimeo.)

Feldhusen, John F., and others. *Teaching children how to think.* West Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University Press, 1975.

Hall, Olive, and Paolucci, Beatrice. *Teaching home economics.* New York: John Wiley, 1970.

Illinois Office of Education. *Illinois program for evaluation, supervision, and recognition of schools.* Curricular Series A, No. 160. Springfield: Office of Public Instriction, 1973. (Mimeo.)

Ranke, Charlotte. *Divergent thinking through a career-oriented home economics teaching unit.* Unpublished. Home Economics Master's Project, Northern Illinois University, 1979.

Home Economics Curriculum Guides

Editor's Note: Readers have asked for an annotated list of curriculum guides which are available for purchase. We are fortunate that Drs. Mildred Griggs (University of Illinois) and Charlotte Carr (Illinois State University) are now directing a project which provides some of this information and that they are willing to share it with Illinois Teacher.

The following list contains useful Home Economics curriculum guides available for purchase. They were reviewed by the Illinois Vocational Home Economics Curriculum Development Project Staff* during the Spring of 1980. A complete list of those reviewed may be borrowed from the East Central Network and Illinois Vocational Curriculum Center, Sangamon State University E22, Springfield, Illinois 62708. For information call toll free 800-252-8533. Ask for the *ANNOTATIONS OF HOME ECONOMICS CURRICULUM GUIDES*, by the Illinois Vocational Home Economics Curriculum Development Project Staff.

Homemaking in Elementary Schools $3.00
Rutgers Graduate School of Education
Vocational-Technical Curriculum Lab
Bldg 4103 - Kilmer Campus
New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903

This curriculum guide has activities for grades K-6 that can be integrated into the regular elementary school curriculum. The guide contains objectives, activities, resource materials, and activity sheets. The guide also includes characteristics of the children at the various grade levels.

Home Life Skills: Career Related Junior High Home Economics Course Guide

Minnesota State Department of Education, St. Paul — 153026
Pupil Personnel Services Section: Roseville Area School District 623, Minnesota — 56pp. $3.50+ postage
1977

This guide is designed for use in integrating career education into a one-semester junior high school home economics course. This guide contains 11 home life skills activities and eighteen personal development activities to be integrated into units on foods, grooming and clothing, sewing, personal development and child development. Student worksheets, instructions sheets, and tests intended for duplication are included for various observation activities, games, self analysis tasks, and other student exercises.

Consumer-Home Economics Curriculum Middle Schools

Division of Vocational Education — 86874
Connecticut State Dept. of Education — 293pp.
Hartford, CO (1973) — $9.87

This teacher-developed curriculum guide is intended for home economics programs for males and females grades 6 through 9. Areas are presented sequentially, not by grade level, so that objectives increase in depth within an area. This allows for flexibility within and between schools. Consumer education suggestions appear both in content areas and in the consumer education section. Curriculum plans are presented in seven areas: Child care and development; Clothing and textiles; Consumer education and management; Family health and safety; Food and nutrition; Housing and interiors; and Personal, family, and community relationships. A five column format lists behavioral objectives, content, learning expmriences, evaluation, and a space for teacher's notes. A bibliography of suggested references and resources concludes each area. A three page article contains remarks on the characteristics and needs of middle school youth. A second article of similar length discusses programming considerations.

*Reviewers: Mary Ann Shultz, Jeannie Kim, Liz Hannon, graduate assistants

Exploration of Home Economics Occupations: Home and Family Education

Pauline Bereson and Rosa J. Estrada	98333
Dade County Public Schools	73pp.
Miami, FL (1973)	$5.40+postage

This course, for use at the junior high school level, explores employment possibilities in home economics and related areas. Lists of resource materials, a pretest and posttest, and an extensive 70 page curriculum guide are appended. This guide explores eight areas: (1) Introduction, (2) Homemaking, (3) Personal development for careers, (4) Child care, guidance, and services, (5) Institutional and home management, and supportive services, (6) Home furnishings, equipment, and services, (7) Clothing management production, and services. Each block, except the first and third is introduced by pyramid diagrams showing occupations at entry, skilled, technical, and college-trained levels for these six blocks. The desired behavioral outcome is that the students will be able to identify job titles and descriptions at various levels of maturity and to identify social and economic applications of homemaking roles. Suggested content ideas, learning opportunities, and resources are followed by a list of job titles, descriptions, educational requirements, and remuneration. Block three emphasizes personal characteristics relating to employability and finding employment. Suggested content ideas, learning opportunities, resources are supplemented by personality check lists.

Home Life Skills: Career Related Junior High Home Economics Course Guide

Minnesota State Department of Education	153026
Pupil Personnel Services Section: Roseville Area	56pp.
School District 623	
St. Paul, MN (1977)	$3.50+postage

This guide is designed for use in integrating career education into a one-semester junior high school home economics course. This guide contains eleven home life skills activities and eighteen personal development activities to be integrated into units on foods, grooming and clothing, sewing, personal development and child development. Student worksheets, instructions sheets, and tests intended for duplication are included for various observation activities, games, analysis tasks, and other student exercises.

Indiana Resource Guide for Pre-Ninth Grade Consumer & Homemaking Education

Vocational Institutional Materials Lab
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana 47809
1974

This curriculum contains all the information you need to develop daily lesson plans. For the most part, the objectives are at the basic level (knowledge), increasing to comprehension whenever possible.

The suggested learning experiences do not include reading assignments because of the variety of textbooks used in Indiana schools. Each teacher is urged to support instruction with the current information and text books she has available. Also, at least one learning experience, other than reading, was given for each concept. Resource skills are included for materials which the student may need but may not be readily available.

The guide is divided into 5 sections: (1) Food and Nutrition; (2) Housing; (3) Human Development; (4) Management; (5) Textiles and Clothing.

Each unit has a unit concept, several sub-concepts and supporting framework, objective level, learning experience examples (instructional or operational objectives), and generalizations.

Middle School Curriculum Guide

Ednell M. Snell
Dept. of Home Economics
University of New Mexico
1978

This guide includes the following packets: 1. Consumer management, 2. Decision management, 3. Family and Personal development, 4. Clothing and textiles, 5. Grooming and Health, 6. Housing, 7. Food Preparation, 8. Nutrition, and 9. Child Development.

The packets were developed at 3 levels. Each packet contains unit objectives, specific objectives, directions for teaching, information sheets, assignment sheets, job sheets, tests and answers. They are color coded for easy reference. An attempt was made to write these at the reading level of middle school students.

It contains word searches, bulletin board ideas, tests, recipes ideas for a room project, etc.

Adult Roles and Functions

Vocational Curriculum Laboratory
Cedar Lakes Conference Center
Ripley, West Virginia 25305

Designed for nonlaboratory 1 year home economics course for 11 and 12th graders that is competency based. Contains a master list of concepts, essential competencies, and learner outcomes, suggestions for scheduling, glossary, resource list, and units of instruction. There are 8 units of instruction: Problems of Teenagers, Family Relations, Home Management, Housing, Parenting, Nutrition, Consumer Education, and Careers. Each unit contains competencies, suggested activities, instructional material and evaluation. At the end of each unit is a supplement filled with all sorts of teaching aids and student handouts.

A very complete comprehensive guide.

Competency-Based Curriculum for Home Management

By: Department of Home Economics
Marshall University
Huntington, West Virginia
Available from: Vocational Curriculum Laboratory
Cedar Lake Conference Center
Ripley, West Virginia 25271

This guide has 5 major sections: (1) Teacher Section; (2) Introduction; (3) Student Competency sheets; (4) Supplements and; (5) Evaluation sheets.

The teacher's section includes teacher materials, list of resources and directions on how to use these learning packages. The introduction contains two learning packages to introduce this system to the students. The student competency sheets contain a competency, a prerequisite, objectives, learning activities, evaluation and some extended FHA learning activities. Evaluation sheets are to be removed and kept by the teacher. The learning packages are grouped into 11 task areas: (1) Goals; (2) Resources; (3) Decision-making; (4) Planning; (5) Facilitating; (6) Implementing; (7) Performance of Work; (8) Supervision of Work; (9) Communication; (10) Feedback; (11) Other System's Demands.

Multitude of prepared learning experiences. Very detailed guide. Format is well organized for both teacher and student.

Needle Trades

Ellen Halmes, Curriculum Writer
State Department of Vocational and Technical Education 1978 300pp.
Stillwater, Oklahoma

A performance-based instructional guide for a career in industrial clothing instruction areas: Section A contains these three units, securing a job, career success, and free enterprise system. Section B contains 4 units: sewing machine maintenance and safety, needle trade techniques, cutting room operations, and quality control, pressing and shipping. Each instructional unit contains behavioral objectives, suggested activities, information sheets, assignment sheets, job sheets, visual aids, tests and answers. Units are planned for more than one lesson or class period.

Contains complete information on needle trades. Has many teacher aids.

Forum Plus

By: J.C. Penney
Consumer Affairs Department
1301 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10019

Contains 4 folders and a resource magazine for consumer educators on the topic. "Changing Values: Where are we Going." One folder contains guidelines and further instructions on using materials in this packet. The second folder contains six activities designed in a workbook form with a major emphasis on values and our eating problems. Folder three contains, a poster, booklet, and an illustrated guide to be used in their lesson plans on, "Where does your Money Go?" "Money: Earning, Spending and Saving," and "It's My Basic Right?" Folder four gives a time line on some important consumer issues. The magazine Forum is a resource for consumer educators which contains about 16 articles dealing with changing values.

Information designed to give an educator new teaching ideas and to help keep current in the field of consumerism.

Exploring Home Economics Related Careers: Introduction to Vocations

Carolyn Hoggatt	128601
Curriculum Lab	126pp.
Rutgers, the State University	$7.35+postage
New Brunswick, N.J.	
March 1976	

Developed to meet the career educational needs of students enrolled in home economics courses and/or in introductory vocational programs. This document (teachers' copy) contains 6 units of study focusing on the home economics-related careers cycles of: child development and care; clothing, textiles and fashions; food services; institutional, hospitality industry and home services; housing and home furnishings; and family and consumer services careers. Each unit contains suggested and specific learning objectives, a teacher overview, pre- and post-test inventory. Ten lessons suggesting learning activities and bibliography are included.

Parenthood Education: A Curriculum Guide

Department of Home Economics
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL 60115

This curriculum guide contains competency statements, criteria for measuring learner achievement of competencies, and enabling activities. Measurable or behavioral objectives will be supplied by the teacher-facilitator. For each competency statement, several criteria statements are made. Facilitators and learners will decide which criteria are appropriate for their situation. Learners may work to meet all of the criteria listed if these satisfy their needs and objectives. It is possible for learners in the same class to learn and choose different criteria.

Home Economics for Oregon Schools, Individual and Family Resource Management

By: Verne A. Duncan
State Department of Public Instruction
Oregon Department of Education
Salem, Oregon 97310

This is one of the 5 suggested guides written to cover a comprehensive home economics program in Oregon Schools, 1978, 101 pp. This guide can be used for:

1) delineating content areas for home economics
2) communicating potential outcomes of home economics to students, faculty, parents, and other community members
3) planning and administering local home economics programs
4) assessing and evaluating local home economics programs
5) The goal of the *Individual and Family Resource Management Guide* is to be able to help students make rational decisions in managing personal and family resources.

There are 6 program goals given, with a number of course goals given under each. For each suggested course goal there is a range of 7-20 learning experiences with a list of resources given.

Oregon managed K-12 instruction by means of goal-based planning, not competency based education. There are no prepared teaching materials. A multitude of learning experiences is given. A complete resource list is given at the end which includes: books, pamphlets, kits, games, magazines, films, filmstrips, tapes and slides.

Continuing Professional Growth:

Continuing Professional Growth is one of the obligations home economics teachers and other professional persons assume when they enter a profession. Society grants some of us the privilege of entering a profession, and society expects service based on up-to-date knowledge.

One of the ways we can carry out this obligation for continuing professional growth is to belong to appropriate professional associations. For home economics teachers three of the appropriate ones are AHEA, AVA, and HEEA. Not belonging to professional associations is like being a plumber without tools or a union card.

AHEA

The American Home Economics Association is the only organization representing *all* home economists—teachers, college and university faculty, Extension home economists, state staffs, those in business and industry or health and human services, students, retirees.

It has a sizable Headquarters Staff in Washington which serves the members via representing us at Congressional hearings and other places where decision makers need to hear a voice for the family; via the *Journal of Home Economics, Action,* the *HE Research Journal, Washington Dateline, COFO Memo,* and other publications that are not periodical; via the Annual Meeting (in late June—the next one is in Atlantic City), one of the largest professional conventions. in the country; and the myriad of other ways they work to answer our correspondence, to help with professional image, to provide fellowships and other awards, to sponsor the Center for the Family which provides outreach and establishes members as advocates for the family.

Dues for full time professionals are $55.00 per year ($60.00 California), include membership in the state association, and may be sent to AHEA 2010 Mass. Ave., N.W., Wash., D.C., 20036. Application forms provide opportunities for you to state qualifications for membership. The current Executive Director is Dr. Kinsey Green.

AVA

The American Vocational Association is "the nation's only professional organization with a full-time commitment to helping individual vocational educators and institutions provide effective programs of education for work". It has over 56,000 members and twelve affiliate or divisional organizations including the Home Economics Division and separate affiliates for Home Economics teachers, state supervisors, local supervisors, and teacher educators.

AVA was formed in 1926 and has maintained a national headquarters office in the Washington, D.C., area sense 1934. The *current address* is 2020 N. 14th St., Arlington, Va 22201, and the current Executive Director is Dr. Gene Bottoms. Annual convention is in early December and the next one will be in Atlanta.

The objective of AVA is "to develop and promote comprehensive programs of vocational education through which individuals are developed to a level of occupational performance commensurate with their innate potential and the need of society". (AVA Board of Directors). Its program of work focuses on legislation, program development, professional growth opportunities, organizational development and public information.

Vocational education, the "education of people for work" is the fastest growing area of eduction today, involvment having increased by 300% in the past ten years.

Dues are $30.00 per year via your state affiliate, plus small additional dues if you wish to join an affiliate such as the NAVHET (National Association of Vocational Home Economics Teachers), and they include a subscription to VocEd, a journal published eight times a year, as well as membership in the state association. Address is given above.

Via Professional Associations

HEEA

The Home Economics Education Association is a non governance affiliate of the National Education Association, located in the NEA Building at *1201 - 16th St., N.W., Washington D.C. 20036.* The current Executive Secretary is Catherine Leisher.

HEEA is "a group of home economics educators & others associated with or interested in home economics instructions in schools and colleges. It strives to help home economics promote a better understanding of family and community life, to improve the quality of home economics instruction, and to broaden the scope of the curriculum.

Meetings are held in connection with the larger conventions of AHEA, AVA, and NEA.

Two bulletin-type publications each year are sent free to members and made available for purchase by others. They usually focus on secondary teaching. There is also a President's Newsletter. Dues are $15.00 and payable to the above address.

HEEA, AHEA, and AVA form the *Coalition of Home Economics.*

The Editor

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ILLINOIS TEACHER
OF HOME ECONOMICS

Visions and Decisions for the '80s
Information for Congressional Decisions in '82 . . . and Other Ideas

HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION · UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

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Address: ILLINOIS TEACHER
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1310 S. 6th St.
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Telephone: 217-333-2736

Foreword

In 1982 Congress will decide whether to continue funding home economics education in the present manner or some other manner or not at all. An earlier Congress mandated that the National Institute of Education make an evaluation of consumer and homemaking programs and thus provide information that might be helpful in deciding about future funding. The results, or progress reports, of those studies comprise the section in the center of this issue of *Illinois Teacher*. We all, of course, need to be continuously gathering additional information about the success of our programs and making this available to our decision makers in Congress. And we are all in the debt of those who have done the studies here reported.

A professor of social studies education has provided us an interesting analysis of values education, and a project on entrepreneurship education is described. Other articles give us a glimpse of the International Federation of Home Economics Congress in Manila, some ideas for teaching consumer education in the health area, and a textbook evaluation project in Nigeria.

This issue also includes our annual feature on the Teachers-of-the-Year and contributions from a teacher and a student teacher as well as the annual Index and several announcements, reviews, teasers, and an idea for an FHA money making project that can save resources.

The Editor

A Message for Your Parenting Class . . .

*Letter From a Boy Just Released from Prison**

"It is too late for us because the damage has been done, and our child has a record . . . but maybe if we share this letter it will help other parents. Thank you very, very much."

Parents of a Child

Dear Folks:

Thank you for everything, but I am going to Chicago and try to start some kind of new life.

You asked me why I did those things and why I gave you so much trouble, and the answer is easy for me to give you, but I am wondering if you will understand.

Remember when I was about six or seven and I used to want you to just listen to me? I remember all the nice things you gave me for Christmas and my birthday and I was real happy with the things for about a week, but the rest of the year I really didn't want presents. I just wanted all the time for you to listen to me like I was somebody who felt things too, because I remember even when I was young I felt things. But you said you were too busy.

Mom, you are a wonderful cook and you had everything so clean and you were so tired so much from doing all those things that made you busy, but you know something, Mom? I would have liked crackers and peanut butter just as well—if you had only sat down with me and said to me "Tell me all about it so I can maybe help you understand".

And when Donna came I couldn't understand why everyone made so much fuss, because I didn't think it was my fault that her hair is curly and her teeth so white and she doesn't have to wear glasses with such thick lenses. Her grades were better too, weren't they?

If Donna ever has children, I hope you will tell her to just pay some attention to the one that doesn't smile very much, because that one will be really crying inside. And when she's about to bake six dozen cookies, to make sure first that the kids don't want to tell her about a dream or a hope or something because thoughts are important too, to small kids even though they don't have so many words to use when they tell about what they have inside them.

I think all the kids who are doing so many things that the grownups are tearing their hair out or worrying about are really looking for somebody that will have the time to listen a few minutes and who really and truly will treat them as they would a grownup who might be useful to them. If you folks had ever said to me; "Pardon me;" when you interrupted me, I'd have dropped dead. If anybody asks you where I am, tell them I have gone looking for somebody with time, because I've got a lot of things I want to talk about.

Love to all,

Your Son

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Teachers-of-the-Year Speak . . .

Editor's Note:
I find these words of excellent teachers good "reference" materials for student teachers and morale boosters for teachers who are feeling a twinge of burn-out!

Hazel Taylor Spitze

Once again I sent all of the state winners of Teacher-of-the-Year (TOY) awards, 43 this year, a letter and a questionnaire asking them to share some of their ideas and philosophy with us. I received 32 responses from young teachers and more experienced ones, from small communities and large, from Maine to California and Washington to Florida.

The first question I asked was **Why do you like to be a teacher?**

Over and over they replied, "I like people. I like *young* people. I like to watch them grow. I like their enthusiasm and energy. I take pride in their accomplishments. I have concern for today's youth."

Jan Robertson of Washington said, *"I have respect and fondness for Home Economics and for young people which has grown during the 23 years I have taught."*

"I like to share myself," added Susan Chelini of California, and Suzanne Sievers of Iowa said she liked *"trying to set a good example."* Bernice Deeds of Florida likes *"interaction with interested students"* and Doris Morris of Georgia appreciates *"the opportunity to help the citizens of tomorrow in the formation of personal values."*

"Helping others is one of my basic needs" was Mississippi winner, Doris Hinton's way of putting it.

Missouri's TOY, Kathleen Noe said, *"Teaching is a natural part of me. My youth was filled with an abundance of activities, leadership training and success ventures because of dynamic adult leadership. I like doing the same for today's youth."*

Ramona Cash of North Carolina likes *"the opportunity to enrich others' lives."*

The Texas winner, Florence Thompson, said *"During my 39 years of teaching I have not lost faith in the younger generation nor my love for both male and female students. Teaching is my life and I love every minute of it."*

What did it mean to you to be Teacher-of-the-Year in your state? I asked next.

This question brought forth words like happy, pleased, fantastic, enthusiastic, exhilarated, thrilled, excited, grateful, encouraged, honored, humble, shocked, rewarded, amazed, joyful, proud; and one added, *"Quite honestly, I loved the attention!"* Several felt that it was the high point of their career.

Marjorie Kirby (Arkansas) said she had the *"feeling that I am a symbol of all the other teachers who are doing outstanding work every day . . . happiness in hearing from old friends and former students . . . happiness in seeing my parents and family proud of me and their investment in my education."*

Betty Belue
Alabama

Emily Strahler
Arizona

Marjorie Kirby
Arkansas

Sue Chelini
California

Mary Lou Waitz
Colorado

Betty Belue (Alabama) liked the opportunity to let people know how proud she is to be a home economist and she hoped her project inspired others to try it, too.

"After 30 years my peers selected me as a TOY! Can you believe I'm not burned out or need stress counseling?" Emily Strahler (Arizona)

"It means that others agree with my goals and values . . . a chance to share a rather unique sex education curriculum." Susan Chelini (California)

Charlotte Ranke of Illinois called it *"added incentive to develop new programs,"* and Elizabeth Doiron of Maine was *"pleased to be able to bring honor to my school."*

"It was the biggest thrill and honor of my life and so unexpected. Now I find the challenge even greater because I know I must set an example . . . be worthy of the honor. The enrollment went up in my classes . . ." Mary Lou Waitz (Colorado)

"It reaffirmed my belief in the type of program I offer which attempts to bring out the kindness and concern of my students for those less fortunate than themselves." Bernice Deeds (Florida)

"It gave my students an opportunity to gain more pride in their class and their teacher. I have to change jobs often because of my husband's moves and I sometimes feel drained because of all the energy a new position requires . . . but each is a challenge." Doretha Gay (Maryland)

"It is the most rewarding experience of my career of 38 years. I feel a sense of responsibility to live up to it." Elsie Gerner (Minnesota)

". . . excitement in the reaction of my three young sons, my students, my school district and school board, my community." Linda McGregor (Montana)

"I feel humble . . . must share the honor with my Home Economic Department, my principal, my superintendent." Elizabeth Lengle (Pennsylvania)

South Carolina's Betty Dickson also felt *"humble and blessed"* and gave credit to the support of administrators, fellow teachers, students and community.

The Texas winner, Florence Thompson, said it was a *"reward for something that is a daily reward."* Both she and the Virginia winner, Rosa Smith, mentioned that *"It made me think of all the great teachers I know in my state."*

Patricia Reisinger of Wisconsin said, *"It means I have to work twice as hard this year to keep up that reputation!"* She also noted that *"a very positive feeling about Home Economics has developed in our community."*

The third question I asked was **What do you feel is your most important contribution to society as a teacher?**

Said Mary Lou Waitz (Colorado), *"I hope each of my students graduates with a sense of worth and dignity . . . I try to get them to share with each other the love and understanding of friends. I try to see that each student receives recognition."*

Doretha Gay
Maryland

Elizabeth Doiron
Maine

Louise Bellamy
Louisiana

Elizabeth Belden
Connecticut

Charlotte Ranke
Illinois

Suzanne Sievers
Iowa

Jamie Williams
Kentucky

Sharon Wells
Michigan

Elsie Helen Gerner
Minnesota

Doris Hinton
Mississippi

"I am helping prepare students to become better parents, better consumers, capable young adults," said Marjorie Kirby (Arkansas), and the Arizona winner, Emily Strahler, said she is *"helping students develop a positive self image through the use of their minds and hands in creative pursuit of daily family living."*

Betty Belue (Alabama) is *"helping student teachers learn to love teaching."*

Louise Bellamy (Louisiana) is *"motivating students to want to learn . . . to be able to support themselves . . . to be able to cope with change and stress."*

"I am providing students the opportunity to gain the knowledge and skills necessary to become informed and responsible consumers, community members, wives or husbands, homemakers and parents," answered Elizabeth Doiron of Maine.

"I want to impress my students that their most important asset is their health, physical and mental," replied Sharon Wells (Michigan).

"I am helping to improve the quality of life for this generation and their children," said Doris Hinton (Mississippi).

The Montana TOY, Linda McGregor, said she is *"teaching students HOW TO FIND ANSWERS rather than trying to teach all the answers."*

Kathleen Noe of Missouri said, *"If I can help them cope with today . . . then I believe tomorrow will find them mature and competent citizens."*

Ramona Cash of North Carolina expressed her philosophy as *"It's the little things in life that count."*

My contribution is *"setting an example worth emulating, providing a guide for behavior, being available for conferences and help,"* said Donna Eaton of Ohio.

"I am helping my students learn to be healthy and to manage their own lives." Elizabeth Lengle (Pennsylvania)

"I am helping young people have a more enjoyable life in a family and in a career." Alice Chandler (Tennessee)

How do I contribute? By *"being a good listener . . . teaching decision making and survival skills . . . helping students understand that making a home is a career for all family members."* Florence Thompson (Texas)

Rosa Smith of Virginia is *"helping students develop a positive self image and a desire to help others,"* and Jan Robertson of Washington is helping students feel *success*, develop self confidence and self motivation.

Patricia Reisinger of Wisconsin is *"helping students reach their full human potential using their own human resources."*

Then I asked the question that everyone wants an answer for: **How do you keep from getting out of date, bored, unenthusiastic, and tired of it all?** In other words, "burned out."

Kathleen Noe
Missouri

Linda McGregor
Montana

Ramona H. Cash
North Carolina

Donna Eaton
Ohio

The respondents mentioned membership in professional associations, reading (including professional journals), attending conferences, workshops, institutes; taking courses; participating in community, church, and other volunteer work. Some, including Doris Morris of Georgia, have participated in state wide curriculum projects. One of the words most frequently used was, as Emily Strahler of Arizona noted, *involvement*. She also said she *"moves around and gets a variety of teaching experiences."*

The Arkansas winner, Marjorie Kirby, said *"I have two teenage daughters!"* and she added that she *believes* in what she's doing, she has *change* and variety in what she teaches.

The California TOY, Susan Chelini, said *"About 5 years ago when I was on maternity leave, I dumped all my old lesson plans. It was a scary thing to do, but it forced me to analyze my priorities and develop new approaches to my teaching."*

"I keep busy with new ideas and new approaches," said Elizabeth Belden of Connecticut. *"For example, my students renovated an old school bus to a mobile food service unit to do catering—the Munchie Mobile—and they sell at group meetings, football games, etc."*

Charlotte Ranke of Illinois said, *"I burn my files every 3 years! I update my curriculum yearly and try new ideas."*

"It's not my nature to get out-of-date, bored, tired of it all, and I haven't met a home economist who is." Anne Lindley (Indiana)

The Iowa winner, Suzanne Sievers, *"field tests new materials, writes proposals for grants to do projects not otherwise feasible on my budget."*

The response of the Kentucky winner, Jamie Williams, was *"You've got to be kidding! Those words are not in my vocabulary. The success stories of my students keep me going."*

The Louisiana TOY, Louise Bellamy, *"serves on visiting committees almost yearly,"* Elizabeth Doiron of Maine *"shares experiences, materials and ideas with colleagues;* and Doretha Gay of Maryland *"does not let the undesirable aspects of some positions give me a negative attitude about all positions."*

"I maintain a positive mental attitude, professional integrity in my relationship with my students, and I enjoy them as fellow human beings." Sharon Wells (Michigan)

"There is so much left to learn!" Elsie Gerner (Minnesota)

"It's hard to be 'tired of it all' when you have a new idea to try." Linda McGregor (Montana)

"I use FHA methods of student involvement." Kathleen Noe (Missouri)

The North Carolina TOY, Ramona Cash, said, *"I travel, read, use new techniques and the latest information to meet my objectives. I love for a student to say 'We didn't do that when I was in your class last year', so I can say 'I didn't know that last year'!"*

Betty Dickson (South Carolina) and Florence Thompson (Texas) mentioned *"working with student teachers"* and Marilyn Swierk (Rhode Island) said *"Home Economics teachers are too busy to get bored."* Beth Sims of Wyoming said her students keep her enthusiastic.

Janet Robertson
Washington

Rosa Smith
Virginia

Florence Thompson
Texas

Elizabeth B. Lengle
Pennsylvania

Marilyn Swierk
Rhode Island

Betty Dickson
South Carolina

Alice Chandler
Tennessee

"I take professional leave days to get renewed and refreshed, and I never use a previous year's plan book." Carole Parsons (West Virginia)

Carole Parsons
West Virginia

Pat Reisinger
Wisconsin

Then the big question our student teachers are waiting for answers to:

If you could give beginning teachers one sentence of advice, what would it be?

Doris Morris of Georgia advised, *"If at first you don't succeed, try again"* and Betty Belue of Alabama was brief with *"Be patient and show love."*

"Expect a great deal of growth and learning from your students and you'll get it" offered Bernice Deeds of Florida.

"Get involved professionally, think POSITIVE, and help your students as fairly and honestly as you can." Mary Lou Waitz (Colorado)

"Good ideas need to be developed, changed, fought for and proven."
Elizabeth Belden (Connecticut)

"Get involved, be involved, stay involved," said Jamie Williams of Kentucky and she was echoed over and over again.

"Stimulating interest results in motivation, and the learning process begins," said Anne Lindley of Indiana, and Elizabeth Doiron of Maine added, *"Keep your classes interesting for yourself and your students by using the latest information and reference materials and a wide variety of teaching techniques."*

Good advice from Elsie Gerner of Minnesota was *"Focus on what students* can *do rather than what they can't, treating each as an individual with love and respect."*

"Plan lessons so students can reach a goal and gain a feeling of accomplishment and then recognize them for it." Doretha Gay (Maryland)

"Think positive about each student and find something in each one to promote." Doris Hinton (Michigan)

"Be organized enough to do the job well but flexible enough to use students' interest to create an enthusiastic learning environment." Kathleen Noe (Missouri)

". . . and remember that students expect and respect discipline." Ramona Cash (North Carolina)

The TOY from Ohio, Donna Eaton, emphasized that *"after you have gained a strong background of knowledge in Home Economics, you should be more concerned about* whom *you teach than* what *you teach."*

Marilyn Swierk of Rhode Island was one of several who advised, *"Be proud of your chosen profession and see that others understand what Home Economics is all about. Never give up!"*

Betty Dickson of South Carolina stressed *"high standards in the classroom, support for professional associations, and knowledge of societal changes that affect our programs."*

The Tennessee winner, Alice Chandler, was emphatic: *"Be organized, enjoy teaching, be willing to work, be firm but fair—or change your career."*

Florence Thompson of Texas said, *"Respect your students as young adults . . . you must have a 'teaching heart' to succeed."*

"Determine where your students are and teach to their needs and concerns." Rosa Smith (Virginia)

"Work hard to develop a realistic, valuable situation and then relax and inject humor into it for yourself and your students." Jan Robertson (Washington)

The Wyoming TOY, Beth Sims, advised, *"Listen to your students' questions and you'll find out what they really want to know,"* and Patricia Reisinger of Wisconsin said, *"Wow! One sentence! Know your material, respect one another and work hard at giving all you've got to those students every day."*

A few of the teachers added "comments" at the end of my questionnaire.

Elsie Gerner of Minnesota said that the majority of students in her high school elect a home economics course and enjoy it, and she added, *"More than 20 students that I have taught now have at least a four year degree in Home Economics. That's a reward in itself."*

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Entrepreneurship: A Career Opportunity for Home Economics Students*

Cheryl W. Compton (l)
Research Assistant
and
Alyce M. Fanslow (r)
Professor
Home Economics Education
both of
Iowa State University

Have students in your home economics classes ever dreamed of going into business for themselves? If so, have they actually evaluated aspects of small-business ownership?

If these are interests of your students, or of you, it is a reflection of the resurgence of interest in the American dream of "going into business for yourself." Each year approximately 500,000 new small businesses are started. Of these, only half will be in existence for 18 months of longer.[1]

Awareness of the opportunities and risks of small-business ownership has caused vocational educators to recognize the need for entrepreneurial education in their classrooms. The American Vocational Association has supported this thrust by devoting an issue of VocEd (May, 1980) to the topic of entrepreneurship and by making entrepreneurship prominent in the 1980 annual meeting in New Orleans.

If entrepreneurial education is to become a part of vocational education, how can home economics teachers become involved? This was the question we asked ourselves in 1978. As a result of this question, we designed a research project to determine:

1. whether entrepreneurial concepts could be taught at the secondary level, and
2. to investigate whether the topics could be included in either the consumer and homemaking or the occupational program.

Entrepreneurial Education Approaches

To implement the topic of entrepreneurship at the high school level, two approaches seemed possible. The first approach was career exploration and, the second, in-depth preparation. The first approach, career exploration, was selected for three reasons.

1. The students enrolled were ages 16-18, which suggested that they were unlikely to be ready to start independent businesses without further education and management experiences.
2. The belief that students should have the opportunity to explore the concept of entrepreneurship to decide whether this career option is for them, before they are involved in an in-depth course.
3. The classroom time available to implement this concept in ongoing programs was limited, and we did not believe that our home economics teachers could be expected to give up the amount of classroom time that would be necessary for in-depth preparation.

We decided on the exploratory focus of the unit, reviewed existing curriculum guides and found none usable because they focused on in-depth preparation for small-business ownership, included few examples using women or home economics-related businesses, and presented little or no background information for teachers.

Sufficient background information for teachers seemed imperative because we knew that home economics teachers had little educational background in entrepreneurial concepts. Further, we

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*Journal Paper No. J-10154 of the Iowa Agriculture and Home Economics Experiment Station, Ames, Iowa. Project No. 2318.

[1]Siropolis, Nicholas C. Small Business Management: A Guide to Entrepreneurship. Burlington, Ma.: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1977.

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Rosa Smith of Virginia showed her dedication to her students when she said, *"I regret that I was not able to attend AHEA, but I was scheduled to take students to camp long before the TOY award came."*

And perhaps Carole Parsons of West Virginia summed it all up best when she said, *"Home Economics will be what we make it."*

It is also worth noting that the word most frequently used by these outstanding teachers was *helping*. We *are* a helping profession!

believed that the unit should contain most of the information needed by teachers since their busy schedules allow little time to read.

Following are some questions from the unit that may illustrate the reasons for including background information. Please complete the following quiz. See how many of the questions you can answer correctly.

Question 1: What are the three most common types of business ownership?

Answer: Sole proprietorship, partnership, and corporation.

Question 2: What are one advantage and one disadvantage of each type of business ownership?

Answer: (1) Sole proprietorship—simple to organize; however, in case of a business failure, the owner's personal assets are subject to creditors' claims. (2) Partnership—two viewpoints are often helpful, but each partner is responsible for all the actions of the other partner(s) related to the business. (3) Corporation—it may be easier to raise money through sale of stock; however, the owner no longer has complete autonomy in business decisions.

Question 3: What is the difference between a limited partnership and a subchapter S corporation?

Answer: A limited partnership is a partnership in which each partner may limit his/her liability to his/her investment,[2] and a subchapter S corporation is a corporation that has elected not to be taxed as a corporation.

Did you find yourself lost with any of the questions? If so, you may understand why we wanted detailed information for teachers in the unit materials.

Development of the Entrepreneurial Unit

The unit, "Entrepreneurship: A Home Economics Career Exploration Unit," was developed in three phases. First, small-business owners in Iowa were surveyed to determine business concepts that they believed were important for people to know when they were considering this career. Other available curriculum materials were analyzed to identify major concepts. From these two activities, 12 major concepts important to include in the unit were identified.

The second phase of development was writing and pilot testing the first draft of the unit. Three Iowa home economics teachers were invited to be the advisory panel to offer suggestions on developing the unit so that it was relevant to high school students and usable by high school home economics teachers. Some of their suggestions included: having hands-on experiences, having a variety of activities in the 3-week unit, and having "reasonable" amounts of homework reading assignments. These three teachers also pilot-tested the unit in early 1980.

While the pilot test was occurring, the unit was reviewed to validate the accuracy of the small-business content. Reviewers were small-business owners and faculty members with areas of specialization in small business and economics.

Results of the pilot test showed that it is possible to teach entrepreneurial concepts to high school students. Further, the concepts proved of interest to the students.

The pilot test also showed that some areas of the unit needed further development, so the unit was extensively revised in summer, 1980. The pilot test demonstrated which concepts needed to be developed more fully, which examples were not clear, and which learning activities needed changing.

The third phase of the development was field testing the revised unit. Twelve home economics classes in Iowa participated in the field test in fall, 1980. The twelve classes included six occupational and six consumer and homemaking programs. The field test was designed to answer the question, "Is it more appropriate to include a unit on entrepreneurship in occupational or in consumer and homemaking programs?"

Content of the Entrepreneurial Unit

The unit has two major objectives. The student will be able to:

1. explore small-business ownership as a career option and
2. identify factors influencing the success of a small business.

The twelve major topics considered in the unit are:

1. nature of small business
2. goal setting
3. product or service determination
4. advertising
5. business location

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[2]Baumback, Clifford M., Kenneth Lawyer, and Pearce C. Kelley, *How to Organize and Operate a Small Business*, 5th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1973. p. 225

6. business expenses
7. business capital
8. types of business organizations
9. financial management
10. business record keeping
11. customer and employee relationships, and
12. characteristics of small-business owners.

The unit contains 15 lessons with objectives, generalizations, and classroom activities. Each lesson is designed for a 50-minute class period; hence, the needed class time is about 3 weeks. The lessons have background information for teachers in addition to student worksheets, student reference sheets, guest speaker guidesheets, vocabulary lists, and an achievement test. The student worksheets, reference sheets, and vocabulary lists are ready for duplication by the teacher. An example of a student reference sheet follows.

EXAMPLE OF STUDENT REFERENCE SHEET

Customer and Employee Relations

VOCABULARY:

Employee relations: The manager's ability to make employees feel they are an important part of the business.

Customer relations: Interactions between the store owner and employees with the store's customers.

Community relations: The store owner's and employees' attitudes and interactions in the community where the store is located.

WHY ARE GOOD CUSTOMER RELATIONS IMPORTANT TO A SMALL BUSINESS OWNER?

The people who decide to buy and then later to buy again are very important to a small business. A business objective must be to attract and maintain a supporting clientele of satisfied customers. Customer satisfaction is considered the basis for continued success of a business. To develop good customer relations, a small-business owner should:

1. identify customer likes and dislikes
2. prepare employees in courteous customer relations
3. provide services desired by customers
4. observe all company warranties and guarantees, and
5. service company products.

HOW ARE GOOD EMPLOYEE-EMPLOYER RELATIONS DEVELOPED?

Management should provide the leadership to build good employee-employer relationships by:

1. recognizing good work
2. treating employees fairly
3. giving criticism constructively
4. considering employees as individual human beings
5. distributing responsibility, and
6. involving employees in decision making.

HOW ARE COMMUNITY RELATIONS DEVELOPED BY A SMALL-BUSINESS OWNER?

The small-business owner develops community relations by representing the business to groups in the community. Groups may include service clubs or trade associations. The small-business owner also interacts with the community by sponsoring school or community activities. These activities may include purchasing a page advertisement in the school annual, giving time and/or money to a community development project, or working on a local charity product. Owners are the spokespersons for their business when they speak to school classes, civic groups, customers, suppliers, and financial institutions.

Activities include analysis of case studies, field trips, readings, guest speakers, and class discussions. Students form small groups at the start of the unit. Each small group creates a hypothetical business suitable for the community in which the unit is taught. The group changes or adapts its business as the class covers new topics and learns new information.

Field Test Results

Results from the field test show that students are interested in the topic of small-business ownership. Teachers find the unit materials adaptable to any subject-matter class.

The consumer and homemaking classes involved in the field test included family living, foods, housing, and textiles and clothing. The occupational classes involved both food-service and diversified occupational programs. Because of the nature of the occupational classes, the student interest and the teachers' willingness to study the topics more in depth, the occupational programs took longer to complete the unit than did the consumer and homemaking classes. Occupational teachers have suggested that the unit could be developed into a 9-week course for their programs. This could be done by adding activities to each of the topics in the unit. For example, students could develop advertisements, conduct brief market surveys, complete accounts receivable registers, or calculate payrolls.

Teacher reactions to the unit have been overwhelmingly positive. Teachers have found the unit materials very easy to use and have emphasized that the lesson format was easy to follow. Because teachers often find it difficult to use lesson plans written by someone else, we have been pleased with teachers' comments that they can easily use this unit.

Two teachers participating in the field test received "thank you" notes from the bankers who were guest speakers in their classes. The bankers were excited about any program that introduced the topic of small-business ownership to high school students.

Teachers had questions from small-business owners and community members as to why entrepreneurship was a topic in home economics classes "which, after all, deal only with cooking and sewing." The teachers were pleased to have the opportunity to expand the image of home economics in their communities.

Student reactions to the unit indicated that they are interested in pursuing entrepreneurship for reasons such as "want to be my own boss," see it as "a big challenge," "like people," and "would like to have people work for me." Students also have realistically analyzed that small-business ownership involved "handling the paperwork," "pressure," "responsibility," and "money to get started." In each experimental class, there are students who seriously intend to pursue careers as entrepreneurs.

There also are students who have decided *not* to pursue careers as small-business owners. Their main reason is that they do not want the responsibility associated with enterpreneurship. The teachers and business persons involved with teaching small-business ownership believe that it is just as important for some students to realize that entrepreneurship is not the career for them as it is for other students to select this career. Such knowledge will save time, energy, and financial commitments, which could result in a business failure. Teachers also believe that students are better employees because of their experience analyzing a business from the owner's perspective.

Conclusion

Based on the teacher reactions and the student achievement gains, the major conclusion of the research project is that exploring entrepreneurship as a career option is a viable topic for both the consumer and homemaking and occupational programs. It also has been shown that the unit, "Entrepreneurship: A Home Economics Career Exploration Unit,"[3] is usable by teachers and is interesting to students in home economics classes. Other materials that might be adaptable by the teacher for introducing entrepreneurial concepts in the classroom are listed in the references.

Entrepreneurship is a concept that can be incorporated into home economics programs and should be a new direction for vocational home economics. Entrepreneurship is a career option through which home economics teachers can challenge their students who have the independence, skills, and self-discipline to succeed as small-business owners.

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[3]A publisher for "Entrepreneurship: A Home Economics Career Exploration Unit," is currently being sought. For information as to the availability of the unit, please contact Alyce M. Fanslow, 219 MacKay Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, 50011.

Helping Students Become Good Health Care Consumers

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One of the most vital consumer issues facing individuals and families today is how to obtain quality health care. Few individuals appear to be able to obtain the quality health care they desire because they often lack the knowledge and skills necessary to be good health care consumers. These knowledges and skills include: being able to choose knowledgeably among the many forms of health care available, identifying what to look for in a physician, being aware of patients' legal rights, understanding the individual's responsibility for his/her own health care, and being aware of community resources which deal with health issues.

Home economics personnel who teach consumer education classes are in a good position to help their students become good health consumers since home economics teachers are already stressing basic consumer rights and responsibilities in other areas such as insurance, renting apartments, and food purchasing. Home economics teachers also stress prevention of health problems in the areas of foods, nutrition, and child development. Information about how to prevent health problems is an integral part of becoming a good health care consumer. Finally, unlike some topics covered in consumer education classes where students have no first hand experience with the topic (such as insurance or apartment renting), all students are likely to have had some personal experience with the health care system.

The major goal of the following activities is to enable students to become better health consumers by:

1. distinguishing between alternative forms of health care that are available
2. identifying what to look for when choosing a physician
3. describing an individual's responsibilities as a health care consumer
4. identifying a patient's legal rights
5. identifying consumer health groups available in the local community.

Before beginning these lessons, the teacher might ask each student to describe briefly, in writing, one experience s/he has had with a physician and encourage the students to include in their description both what happened during the experience and also how they felt about it.

ACTIVITY #1 WHAT ARE MY CHOICES?

Becoming a good health care consumer is often difficult because there are so many different types of medical practitioners and medical institutions available from which to choose. Helping students understand the difference between these medical practitioners and medical institutions is one of our goals. By using the following worksheet in a class discussion, students can begin to understand and evaluate the many alternatives available to them. As the discussion evolves, teachers can be prepared to fill in information, with which students may not be acquainted.

ACTIVITY #2 WHAT DO I LOOK FOR IN A PHYSICIAN?

Today more and more people are "shopping" for a physician. This is especially true for people who are unhappy with the health care they have received in the past and for people who are moving to new communities. Asking friends for opinions, contacting referral groups, and personally interviewing prospective physicians are some of the ways in which people make choices.

Students need help in identifying what types of questions to ask physicians before becoming a patient. Working in small groups they can be asked to identify questions, and as the groups share their questions with the entire class, evaluation of the questions can evolve.

Comments can include the value of information to be elicited, probable effect on physician interviewed, and ranking of importance of different kinds of information. The information provided on this worksheet is only suggested as a guide and should be shared with students only if they need suggestions.

WORKSHEET #1
WHAT ARE MY CHOICES

Form of Care	Definition	When Would I Use This Form of Care? Why?	When Would I NOT Use This Form of Care? Why?
Types of Care Givers Physician Osteopath Chiropractor Nurse Practitioner Self			
Types of Physicians General Practitioner Family Practitioner Other Specialists			
Places to Receive Care Health Maintenance Organization Hospital Group Practice Clinic Specialty Clinic Physician's Office Home			

WORKSHEET #2
CHOOSING A PHYSICIAN

Questions to Ask	Comments on Questions
1. What are his/her qualifications?	
2. What is the cost for a visit?	
3. What is the average office waiting time?	
4. What hospital is s/he affiliated with?	
5. Does s/he prescribe generic drugs?	
6. How would s/he feel if you chose not to follow the treatment recommendations?	
7. Does s/he invite second opinions?	
8. If s/he is a specialist, is s/he board certified?	
9. Is s/he willing to explain your diagnosis and treatment and answer your questions?	
10.	
11.	
12.	
13.	
14.	
15.	

ACTIVITY #3 WHAT IS MY RESPONSIBILITY AS A HEALTH CARE CONSUMER?

Many individuals do not realize that obtaining quality health care means taking care of one's own health as well as seeking the care of a physician. Students may need help in identifying their own responsibilities as health care consumers. In a class discussion, students can list their responsibilities and judge their own behavior. Worksheet #3 can be used for this purpose. The responsibilities identified on Worksheet #3 are intended only as suggestions. The teacher can encourage students to identify responsibilities before sharing the suggestions which are provided.

WORKSHEET #3

I CAN BE RESPONSIBLE FOR MY OWN HEALTH CARE BY:

Responsibilities	I Always Do This	I Sometimes Do This	I Never Do This
1. Asking questions			
2. Avoiding drugs			
3. Keeping records of my own health history			
4. Registering complaints when appropriate			
5. Receiving appropriate immunizations			
6. Not smoking			
7. Eating a balanced diet			
8. Keeping my weight normal			
9.			
10.			
11.			
12.			
13.			
14.			
15.			

During our lifetime, each of us commonly consults with many different physicians. All physicians need to obtain a medical history before they can begin to diagnose and treat us. Often it is difficult for us to remember all the information they need. One of the ways we can be responsible for our health care is to keep an up-to-date record of our own health history. Some of the information which may be included in a personal health history includes: physician's name, address and telephone number, health insurance policy number or clinic card number, blood type, handicaps, dates of any chronic illnesses, surgery, or accidents; immunization dates for polio, tetanus and rubella; and serious health problems and/or the cause of death for both parents.

After each routine physical examination, it is important to note the date and the results for blood pressure, blood tests, urine tests, tuberculosis tests. It is also important for females to keep a record of their menstrual periods, the dates and methods of birth control used along with any problems that were noted, the dates of any abortions or miscarriages and the results of pap and breast examinations. A nurse or doctor may be invited to class to help students identify other information that is important to have in a personal health history. Then students can construct a personal health history form and individually fill out their own health history for future use.

ACTIVITY #4 WHAT ARE MY RIGHTS AS A PATIENT?

When people are sick and in the hospital, they are often afraid to raise questions about their care. That is why it is important when individuals are healthy and feeling fine to become familiar with their rights as patients. Many people are not aware that they have legal rights as patients. Annas (1974) noted that these legal rights include:

1. the right to refuse treatments, tests, drugs, and procedures
2. the right to informed participation in all discussions regarding own health care programs
3. the right to prompt attention in an emergency
4. the right to leave a health care facility regardless of our physical condition or financial status
5. the right to privacy regarding source of payment for treatment and care.

In order to help students understand their legal rights as patients, a lawyer or hospital administrator could be invited to class to share an example of "A Patient's Bill of Rights". After becoming familiar with the legal rights of patients, students could discuss what other rights they feel patients should have.

ACTIVITY #5 WHAT CAN CONSUMER HEALTH GROUPS DO FOR ME?

In most communities there are a variety of consumer health groups working to help individuals stay healthy, obtain health care, learn about their bodies, or fill the need for a support group for individuals who have particular health problems. Helping students become acquainted with the consumer health groups available in their communities can be an important part of their development. Either individually or in small groups, students could investigate the resources available in their community and then report this information back to the class. The worksheet below may be useful. The telephone directory may also provide a beginning. Students will need assistance in planning interviews or other means of securing information.

WORKSHEET #4
CONSUMER HEALTH GROUPS IN OUR COMMUNITY

WHO THEY ARE	WHAT THEY DO
Volunteer and Fund Raising Groups	
1. Heart Association (example)	
2.	
3.	
Information Referral and Counseling Groups	
1. Rape Hotline (example)	
2.	
3.	
Environmental Groups	
1. Citizens For A Better Environment (example)	
2.	
3.	
Mutual Self Help Groups	
1. Reach For Recovery (example)	
2.	
3.	
Women's Health Groups	
1. YWCA Know Your Body Class (example)	
2.	
3.	

ACTIVITY #6 SUMMING IT ALL UP

In order to evaluate the impact of the preceding activities on students, they may be asked to re-read the description of their own experience with a physician which was written at the beginning and to answer the following questions:

1. Did I make a wise or unwise decision when I chose to receive this form of health care? Why or why not? (Refer to Activity 1)
2. What types of information did I receive from this doctor during the incident I described? What information should I have asked for? (Refer to Activity 2)
3. Did I do my part in my own health care during the incident I described? How? (Refer to Activity 3)
4. Did the physician violate any of my patient rights during the incident I described? If so, which ones? (Refer to Activity 4)
5. Did I have any complaints about the care I received during the incident I described? If so, to whom can I register a complaint? (Refer to Activity 5)

The answers to these questions can be shared with the class to encourage and reinforce students in their efforts toward becoming good consumers of health care. This discussion might include after each question the additional question: What could I have known in advance, or predicted, that would have helped?

Will these words of a grade school student in Champaign, Il, help a teacher or a parent to change the way we relate to those young people in our charge?

The Editor

I WOKE UP THIS MORNING

I woke up this morning
At quarter past seven.
I kicked up the covers
And stuck out my toe.
And ever since then
(That's a quarter past seven)
They haven't said anything
Other than "no".

They haven't said anything
Other than "Please, dear,
Don't do what you're doing,"
Or "Lower your voice."
Whatever I've done
And however I've chosen,
I've done the wrong thing
And I've made the wrong choice.

I didn't wash well
And I didn't say thank you.
I didn't shake hands
And I didn't say please.
I didn't say sorry
When, passing the candy,
I banged the box into
Miss Witelson's knees.
I didn't say sorry,
I didn't stand straighter.
I didn't speak louder
When asked what I'd said.
Well, I said
That tomorrow
At quarter past seven,
They can
Come in and get me
I'M STAYING IN BED.

"Home Economists: Responsible Partners in Development": The 1980 International Federation of Home Economics Theme

Mary Ruth Swope
Dean Emerita
Eastern Illinois University

As one of the nineteen USA delegates to the International Federation of Home Economics Congress held in Manila, Philippines, from July 21 - 26, 1980, I have a story to tell. A memory to share. Hopefully it will expand our vision of home economics and cause us to become "responsible partners in development."

Two specific goals in writing about the IFHE Congress are: (1) to increase our awareness of the roles and needs of professional "sisters and brothers" around the world (especially in underdeveloped countries) and, (2) to motivate us to make a contribution to Home Economics in a world-wide context, as opposed to one strictly in America, by becoming members of the International Federation of Home Economics. Dues, through AHEA, are $15 a year.

Impressive Professional Concepts

There were many oft-repeated concepts gleaned from the Congress speeches. I have selected four to share here.

1. Government-sponsored programs to help "third world" countries presuppose that the goals of the developing countries should aim to become tomorrow what the industrialized countries are today. There is strong opposition to this concept. Developing countries want to make progress in all aspects of their lives but they want to keep their own lifestyles in consonance with the heritage of their local communities.
2. "Third world" home economists feel that government programs are designed to benefit the government doing the planning and not really help the poor or poorest in underdeveloped countries. Repeatedly they made the plea for home economists to help them organize each micro-unit of society to solve their own problems without government intervention.
3. "Third world" home economists believe that they, given the opportunity for adequate education, can contribute best to the delivery of information and services needed by families to improve their quality of life. Their plea is that a delivery system for this kind of professional expertise be provided them for the achievement of this goal.
4. Women in "third world" countries notoriously have had little to say in the important decisions affecting their families, communities, and their countries. The oft-repeated plea of the "third world" home economists speaking in Manila was that they be given help in developing a strategy for working with appropriate public and private organizations and agencies throughout the world to insure equal rights and opportunities for women at the community, national and international levels.

Impressive Personal Observations

Additional things which I learned from listening to many speakers of both sexes from many countries, especially Third World Countries, that have had an impact on my thinking and behavior are:

1. *My life is very different from the lives of women from under-developed countries* which comprise 2/3 of the world. A few of these differences are:

   For every 11,000 kg. of energy I use, they use 100. They enjoy almost no benefits from household labor-saving devices.

   Ninety percent of the energy I use is from coal, oil, gas or electricity; most of what they use is firewood, dung or plant waste.

   Third world women do about 90% of the farming labor, they have neither a choice of job nor any participation in the economic rewards for their work. By contrast, I have selected my own career, received 20 years of formal education in preparation for it and have full rights to my income.

Mass poverty is one of the greatest problems to be faced by my counterparts around the world. Their average income ranges from $200 to $500 annually. Stark, pervasive poverty is not a problem for either me or any of my family and friends.

Malnutrition, desperate hunger and devastating disease is the norm in many countries served by the home economists whom I met at IFHE. None of these dreadful conditions have I seen or experienced, even vicariously.

The homes of millions of families in Third World Countries that house all members of a 2 or 3 generation family, along with every item of their worldly goods, would not be as large as my own personal bedroom. A nearby river (often very dirty and very polluted) is both their bathtub and their laundry tub.

This is a very incomplete list but I need to hurry on to the next subject.

2. *Third World Home Economists believe that we can help them!* (I believe that, too!) They have made a few concrete suggestions of ways in which we can help. Some direct quotes from the IFHE speakers are:

— "The greatest need of families in industrialized countries (that's us!) is to learn to decrease their waste of food, water, energy and other resources." (We *can* do this.)

— "We cannot remedy starvation and human suffering in the world unless and until families in developed countries become interested in international cooperation." (We can also do this!)

— "Humanity on this planet does not have a future if we do not find ways for universal improvement of the human situation without employing alien standards and life styles." (They need and want our help but they do not want to be westernized in the process.)

— "For peace and prosperity among nations, we must all work together."

3. IFHE's Plan of Action

Depending upon funding, the program of work for all member organizations includes the following:

— to affect public policy planning as it relates to the over-all objectives of the Federation at international, regional and local levels

— to consider the preservice and inservice educational needs of home economists

— to forge personal links between member organizations in different areas of the world, leading to mutual assistance

— to provide a forum for the dissemination of current research findings in home economics and to initiate relevant international research projects, especially in urban and rural development situations

— to consider alternative ways for funding and ways to increase membership

My own conclusion to the Congress is this:

With the rapid changes taking place and the current threat to peace among the nations so preeminent today, I believe that among private organizations, the International Federation of Home Economics stands out, *funds permitting*, as one that can render critical services as a partner in development.

The home economist is central to all endeavors for development, for all such action affects the family which is and always will be the basic unit of any society. The family is the miniature world where cultural advancement is tested. Without regard to spatial location upon this planet, the family is the bulwark and custodian of cherished national values. From the family come the roots of national identity, the main basis for international understanding and cooperation for building peace and prosperity.

Home economists of America enjoy the most affluent level of living in the world. We could become responsible IFHE partners in development more easily than any other group on earth. Are we willing to make the commitment and the sacrifice? Our professional sisters and brothers around the world are hoping that we will!*

*A portion of this article appeared in the Illinois Home Economics Association newsletter, *Focus*, March 1981.

How I Teach Bank Reconciliation

(or Women and Men Can Balance Checkbooks)

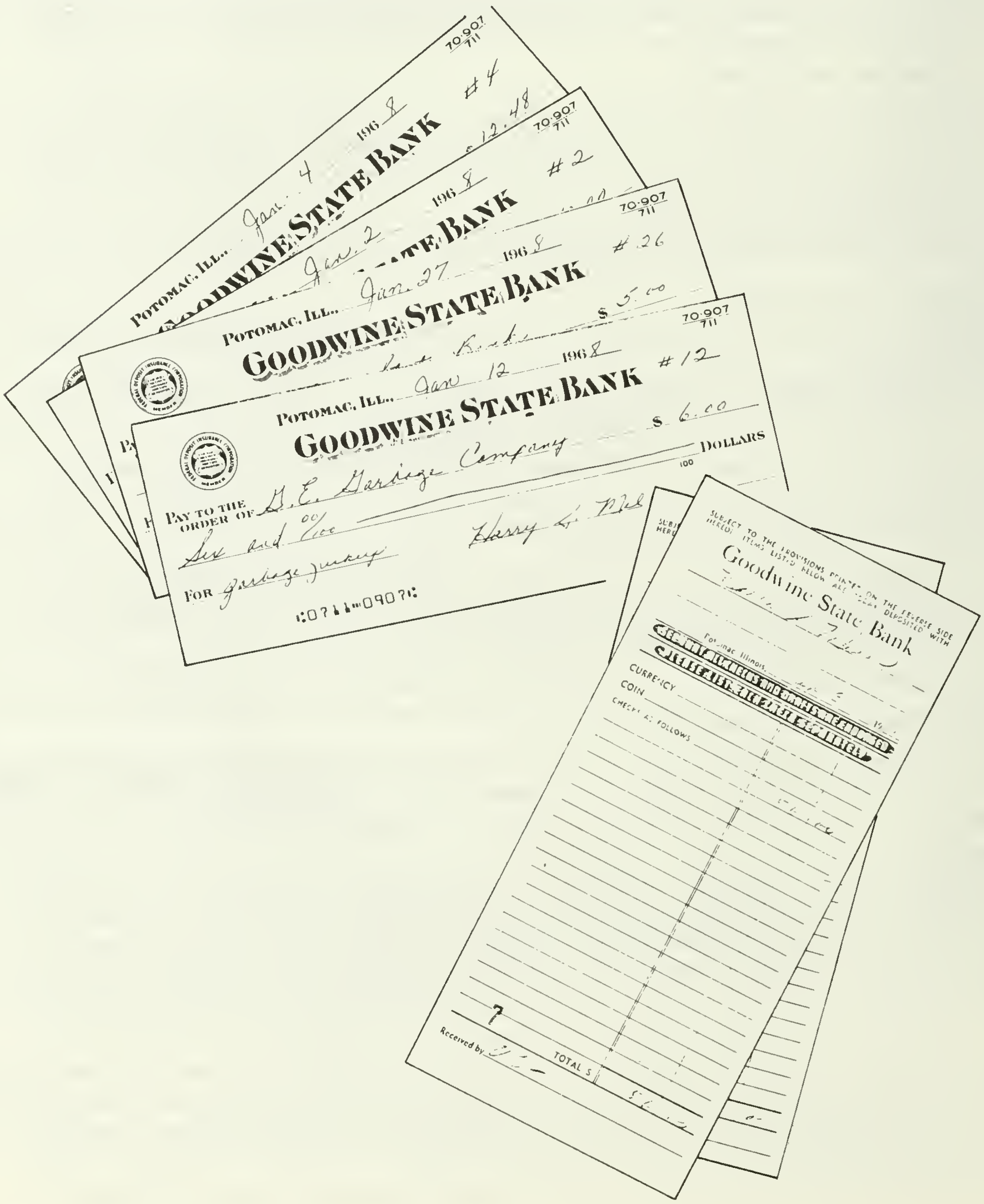
Vicki Frazier
Home Economics Teacher
Armstrong, IL

I give the student a checkbook register with the amounts of the checks, deposits, and beginning balance. The student must then compute the running balance in the register.

Upon completing the running balance, the student receives a packet of cancelled checks and deposit slips wrapped in a bank statement. The checks are in the order they came into the bank, with the most recent checks on top.

The bank statement has the reconciliation form with instructions on how to prove the ending balance of the statement to the checkbook balance. The student follows the instructions and proceeds to prove their checkbook balance.

An example of the materials in the simulation is shown below:



Reports of Studies Initiated by the Ad Hoc Home Economics Research Committee

Ruth P. Hughes, Chair
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Editor's Note:
The articles in this series were presented as a session at AVA which I attended, and I thought the information they contained was too important not to share it with you. It's the kind of thing that will influence our future appropriations in Congress.
You may want to give special attention to the "Characteristics of Successful Secondary Programs" on page 00.

Vocational home economics has had to respond to many demands for changes in its programs, changes which would reflect the needs of the varied audiences which it serves. It became apparent in the 1970's that the field needed to identify and conduct research which would describe the current status of our programs and which would provide direction for the future.

To that end, the home economics division of the American Vocational Association established an ad hoc research committee. The committee first met in May 1978, under the direction of Hazel Crain, then vice president of the division. The committee's charge was to identify research needs for both the long and short term. From those for the short term, the committee established priorities which are reflected in the reports which follow.

One priority was to obtain information on "the state of the art", in other words to find out what was presently going on across the country. Another priority was to obtain data which would address the effectiveness of our programs. The committee was concerned with programs at all levels, but because of the 1976 legislation, it put more emphasis on collecting data which would both help to address the legislative mandates and complement data being gathered by the National Institute of Education (NIE).

The committee included representatives from the American Home Economics Association, the Home Economics Education Association, and the (then) U.S. Office of Education, as well as the American Vocational Association. Other interested groups were kept informed and often met with the committee. Among them were the Future Homemakers of America and persons responsible for the vocational education studies carried out by NIE.

The ad hoc research committee has been continued under Joan McFadden, now vice president of the home economics division. Personnel on the committee has changed somewhat, but the same groups are represented.

The reports which follow are the result of plans made by the earlier committee. The first activity was an updated review of research in home economics education. We had had such reviews in 1966, 1970, and 1971. The 1980 review is explained in the first of the following reports.

A second priority was what the committee called a "census", data which would tell us what was included in the courses taught and to whom they were taught. Because the committee had only minimal funds, the census study was limited to secondary consumer and homemaking education programs. They were chosen because they were the programs most frequently criticized. That study is the second in the series.

Another priority of the committee was to obtain data on effectiveness of programs. Procedures and plans for that effort were to be developed at a seminar on impact research in home economics, held immediately preceding the 1978 AVA convention. Three of the following reports are of studies which originated at that seminar and which were successfully completed.

The first, an evaluation of parenting/child development programs, included three states in the planning and an additional three in data collection. The second, another three state effort, is a report of the impact of secondary consumer and homemaking programs on mildly mentally handicapped students. The third is a synthesis of a series of case studies of successful consumer and homemaking programs. There are seven cases reported but more will be added before the final report is presented.

As the committee reviewed progress on the several efforts, members recognized a need for case

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Review of Research in Home Economics Education

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The 1977 National Institute of Education Plan for the Study of Vocational Education has indicated that "in spite of the familiar inadequacies and imperfections in existing data sources, there is reason to believe that they can be more effectively mined than they have been to date". A review and synthesis of research in Home Economics Education was undertaken as one of the ad hoc committee's efforts (Nelson, 1979).

Research covering the nearly ten years since the last such publication was gathered, reviewed and then examined in relation to the two aspects that the National Institute of Education proposed to Congress to look at their studies:

a) The extent to which home economics programs are responsive to the requirements and intent of federal legislation, and
b) the results of participation for the learners.

The intent of the law relating to vocational education is that the content of programs should be shaped by current national and local economics, social, and cultural conditions and needs.

Some researchers examined speak to that portion of the legislation that intended to ". . . encourage *outreach programs* giving considerations to special neds such as . . . aged, young children, school-age parents, single parents, handicapped persons, educationally disadvantaged persons and programs providing services for courts and correctional institutions . . ." An example of these is Ambrose's (1977) research, testing the feasibility of using a non-graded competency-based module on securing employment with learners confined in correctional facilities. Another is Miller's study of consumer attitudes and consumer behavior in an elderly population expected to know the least about consumer and homemaking functions and to be most vulnerable to the cost of unconsidered decisions and incompetent homemaking (1978).

A few researches focus on the section of the legislation which indicated the necessity to " . . . give greater consideration to *economic, social and cultural conditions and needs*, especially in depressed areas . . ." Responding to this are the researches of Petrich and her coworkers (1972) and of Monts and Barkley (1978) who carried out investigations to identify those life skills perceived by young men and women as essential. The course and materials developed by Conway (1979) were intended to provide help for preservice teachers who will have to deal with the serious reading problems of students in home economics classrooms. Kohlmann and coworkers (1977) developed and tested classroom activity centers as a means of integrating mainstreamed handicapped students into regular home economics classes. Teachers in a workshop sponsored by the New Jersey State Department of Education (1976) developed a handbook to help teachers in working with mentally retarded students. Krieger developed a multi-media learning experience to help teachers be responsive to and deal skillfully with visually impaired students (1978).

A few studies respond to that portion of the legislation which was aimed to ". . . eliminate sex-stereotyping in consumer and homemaking education . . . " (Farris (1977) devised, implemented and evaluated an inservice education workshop designed to reduce sex-role stereotyping in vocational education. Krosky (1974) and Weis (1979) studied textbooks and other materials to help teachers become more sensitive to sex-role stereotypes and sex bias and thereby able to choose instructional

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studies of individual students. That study started later than the others, but data collection is complete and the report should be available soon after you read the progress report here.

Cooperation and participation of classroom teachers in the studies reported was a key factor. They helped in planning and trying out data collection devices, they gave advice on procedure, and it was they who collected the data. The importance of cooperation among teachers, state and local supervisors, and teacher educators cannot be overstated. The reports which follow may be as important for their procedures as for their findings!

materials appropriately. Ford (1976) developed over 200 sex-role stereotype-free mini-units for use in middle school classes for boys and girls.

Researches spoke to those aspects of the legislation which called attention to the need to " . . . emphasize ancillary services, activities and other means of assuring quality in all homemaking education programs such as teacher training and supervision, curriculum development, research, program evaluation, special demonstration and experimental programs, development of instructional materials". Redick (1974) identified teacher competencies needed for working with the physically handicapped, and a series of studies by Gilbert (1974), Caputo (1975) and Fanslow (1979) identified indices useful and reliable in examining preservice teachers' effectiveness. Farris (1978) developed and tested learning packages combining visual aids and reading materials to provide accessible inservice education to practicing professionals. Meszaros (1979) constructed and experimentally tested a model for inservice workshops using a competency-based approach which increased knowledge and positive attitudes about competency-based instruction and increased the time the teachers spent in individualizing instruction in their classrooms.

Home economics teacher educators from across the nation have met in a continuing series of workshops and seminars to identify the professional competencies essential for home economics teachers; to assemble instruments for assessing these professional competencies; and to identify the competencies needed in the subject matter to be taught and establish criteria against which the competencies may be judged.

Major program evaluations were carried out in two states. Fults (1972) studied consumer-homemaking education programs in Illinois finding agreement among administrators, teachers and students that objectives of the programs were being met and that the program should be expanded. A later study in Illinois (IBEX, 1975) examined the consumer education component of consumer-homemaking programs and indicated the programs were effective in enhancing consumer knowledge. A formative evaluation of a sample of ten New York State consumer-homemaking outreach programs for disadvantaged adults was carried out. Learners gained in those subjects in which they spent most time and there were significant gains in personal development (Nelson et al., 1978).

Instruments which should be useful in program evaluation have been developed: Among these are a consumer education achievement test (McCall, 1973); a scale to rate affective competencies of preservice home economics teachers (Daniel, 1976); and scales to rate teaching competencies (Gilbert, 1974; Caputo, 1975; Fanslow et al., 1979; Leonard and Stewart, 1979).

Large scale curriculum development projects were carried out by researchers who were funded at state or federal level. Murphy (1974) developed and tested (on over 4000 learners) a four-module spiral curriculum guide for consumer education. A curriculum focusing on homemaker and on combined homemaker and wage-earner roles was constructed and tested in four states (Nelson et al., 1975).

Programs designed to prepare students for wage earning in home economics-related occupations are also represented. Lowe and her coworkers (1977, 1978) developed ten competency-based modules for areas in which high quality materials were not available. All were tested in field sites with nearly 1400 learners. Beavers (1979) validated program and performance standards for four postsecondary occupational areas. White (1972) designed a flexible curriculum guide for postsecondary child development programs that incorporated a lattice-ladder concept of career mobility.

In general, funds have not been available for the large scale and/or long-term researches recommended. *The Plan for the Study of Vocational Education* presented to the Congress in 1977 stated: "It should be noted that Consumer and Homemaking programs appear to have been neglected in evaluation research on a national level and that systematic state level evaluations of the outcomes for learners participating in them are lacking."

Looking toward future research, we recognize that mandated evaluation and the concept of accountability strongly point to the necessity of more evaluative research. Perhaps we could turn a larger portion of our research efforts to the effects of teaching with less of a concentration on the process. With increasing research emphasis on the effects of home economics curriculum and teaching in the lives of learners, we could address such problems as the unique needs of teenage parents; the managing of the home in those hours left after the workday spent in outside employment; management in single parent households; impact on families of such social welfare policies as those relating to child care outside the home, school feeding programs, health care; changing behaviors of individuals regarding food habits. Longitudinal studies of homemaking students are needed. We continue to need information about the process of teaching, and we now especially need information on learner ability, handicapping conditions, disadvantage and special needs. We will need whole new sets of skills to meet the needs of handicapped students.

Home economics educators have a very real responsibility not only for the development of curricula but also for looking critically and objectively at the effectiveness of the materials developed. Perhaps it would be possible that consumer-homemaking programs using newly developed and pilot-tested curriculum materials could be examined broadly in multiple evaluations such as have been carried out for Head Start and for the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Planned multiple evaluations would permit more valid and credible conclusions about effectiveness. A series of summative evaluations might be possible, for example, with programs using the spiral curriculum for consumer education which Murphy (1974) presented. Such evaluations would need to include a focus on the extent to which the "treatment" (the curriculum-as-designed) was implemented.

Through the ad hoc committee and its research subcommittee, it might be possible to establish a more formalized network among the institutions interested in home economics education research with resulting enhanced communication about research needs, research possibilities and research cooperation. It might be possible thus to join what separate resources there are in pursuing studies with large national samples; large scale studies of groups with special needs; and the longitudinal examinations which some problems require. It would perhaps become more feasible with such a pooling of efforts to augment our survey and experimental research with studies using the qualitative methodologies of participant observation, in-depth interviewing and field work. We should find it possible to address problems of interest and concern not only to researchers but also to practitioners, and to conduct studies which respond to public interest inquiries. Over time we might produce studies which are interpretable in the aggregate.

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Individual Case Studies AVA Ad Hoc Research

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Success stories of students in Consumer Homemaking and Occupational programs were solicited from each of the fifty states through Home Economics Education Association State Chairpersons during the Fall and Winter of 1979/80. Additional requests were made of home economics teachers and teacher educators attending the United States Office of Education meeting held in March, 1980, at Louisville, Kentucky. Editors of Coed/Forecast magazines attending the U.S. Office of Education meeting offered to submit case studies of the 1977/79 regional winners of the Home Economics Student-of-the-Year award. These three sources resulted in the submission of 74 case studies from 29 states.

The case studies/success stories are being reviewed and compiled to give grass roots support to the census study and home economics concepts. Target date for completion of the project is April, 1980.

Recommendations

Based on the data presented, recommendations for program review are appropriate. Even though many of the recommendations are already reflected in some schools, the data indicate that the following suggested practices are not common across the country.

Students who enroll in several semesters of vocational consumer and homemaking courses are provided with most of the topics considered essential. Students enrolled in the various comprehensive courses also have a variety of content. Yet attention might be given to providing content in critical areas to a greater number of students. One way to accomplish this would be to increase comprehensive courses—by whatever title—for students at both freshmen-sophomore and junior-senior years. Another possibility is to put greater emphasis on appropriate critical areas within semester courses. For example, in the popular food and nutrition classes one might emphasize management not only of money but of time and effort, nutrition components could be expanded, and preparation might be limited to attractive, simple, nutritious meals suited to the individual or individuals who work outside the home.

In schools where family living is the course with heavy enrollment, courses might be organized to include more of the critical areas even though some existing content would be deleted. In this respect, consumer education, parenthood education, management of resources, and nutrition are especially pertinent. Another area not generally cited as critical is housing. However, given the importance to individuals and families of the selection and maintenance of a place to live, and the social importance of related concerns such as the environment, it seems appropriate to consider its inclusion in the critical areas.

Consumer education, parenthood education, management of resources, and nutrition are especially pertinent . . . also housing.

The limited number of consumer education classes should be analyzed by state and local supervisors. Is the basic content available to all students? Does it emphasize application to individuals and families, the goal of vocational consumer and homemaking? If not, perhaps consumer education courses need to be increased or a strong unit or units included in comprehensive offerings.

If state and local personnel determine that changes are to be made in the structure and content of vocational consumer and homemaking programs, some adjustments will be needed in teacher education programs. Changes may be as simple as suggesting ways to integrate current topics into on-going programs. As noted previously, an example might be inclusion of study of family and child support services within child development and family relations courses. Restructuring of courses in order to make topics in critical areas available to a larger number of students would require more complex adjustments. If key areas are to be included in a comprehensive course available without prerequisite, then what adjustments are needed in semester courses to provide sequence and continuity? If curricular changes include more involvement with community agencies in order to provide experiences for students, school laboratory activities may be curtailed. On what basis does one determine which to reduce?

Since basic concepts of program planning are an integral part of undergraduate programs and current information on content and strategies are common inservice activities, the fairly minor changes recommended should not be difficult for supervisors and teacher educators to implement. Vocational consumer and homemaking programs in secondary schools in the United States already include content deemed necessary. The recommended adjustments within secondary programs are directed toward providing critical home economics content for greater numbers of students.

Effectiveness of Parenting/Child Development Vocational Home Economics Program

This assessment of secondary level Child Development/Parenting programs was initiated in 1978 at the AVA pre-session on Impact Research in Home Economics. The research design and instrumentation were developed cooperatively by Joan Gritzmacher (Ohio State University), Terrie Shannon and Janine Watts (University of Minnesota, Duluth) and Jerelyn Schultz (Iowa State University). The purpose of the study was to compare knowledge of Child Development/Parenting concepts of students who had completed a Child Development/Parenting course with similar students who had not enrolled in such a class. The study was conceived of as a pretest-posttest design using a multiple-choice cognitive test, administered simultaneously to Child Development/Parenting students and to a comparison group. In addition to collection of data in Ohio, Minensota and Iowa, other researchers were invited to use the instruments in their states and contribute their data to the larger pool. Others who joined in the research project were Helen Loftis and Gail Fuller (South Carolina), Wendy Way and Dawn Johnson (Wisconsin) and Ednell Snell (New Mexico). In some states additional data were collected, such as perceived competencies and attitudes regarding parenting and parenting behavior.

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Professor
Home Economics Education
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In each state, schools were randomly selected from those high schools which offered a quarter, trimester or semester course in Child Development/Parenting during second semester of the 1979/80 school year. Within the selected schools, all students who were currently enrolled in the Child Development/Parenting class(es) were asked to participate in the study. Intact groups of students similar to those in the identified home economics class(es) were also asked to participate to serve as a comparison group. The research instruments were administered to both groups of students during the first or second week of the course, and again during the final week of the course.

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Development of Instrumentation

The major instrument used was a 40-item multiple choice cognitive test. The content was based on child development/parenting concepts taught in high school Child Development/Parenting classes, based on a review of curriculum guides and conceptual frameworks from various states, concepts identified for the Census Study, textbooks, course outlines, and consultation with high school home economics teachers. The content included the decision to parent, development pre-natally to age six, and related parenting skills.

Validity was established through consultation with teacher educators, child development specialists at universities, secondary home economics teachers and a review of secondary child development texts. One hundred twenty-five test items were developed and pilot tested with approximately 600 students in Ohio, Minnesota and Iowa during Spring, 1979. Item analysis results were used to select 40 items for inclusion in the final version of the instrument. The instrument was the pilot tested again in the three states in fall, 1980. Reliability was established using the Kuder Richardson formula 20. Reliability coefficients for Iowa, Ohio and Minnesota were .68, .80 and .89 respectively.

Other instruments were designed by researchers in some of the states to collect demographic data, including age, sex, prior experience with children, and related coursework completed, as well as instruments assessing parenting attitudes and perceived competencies regarding parenting skills.

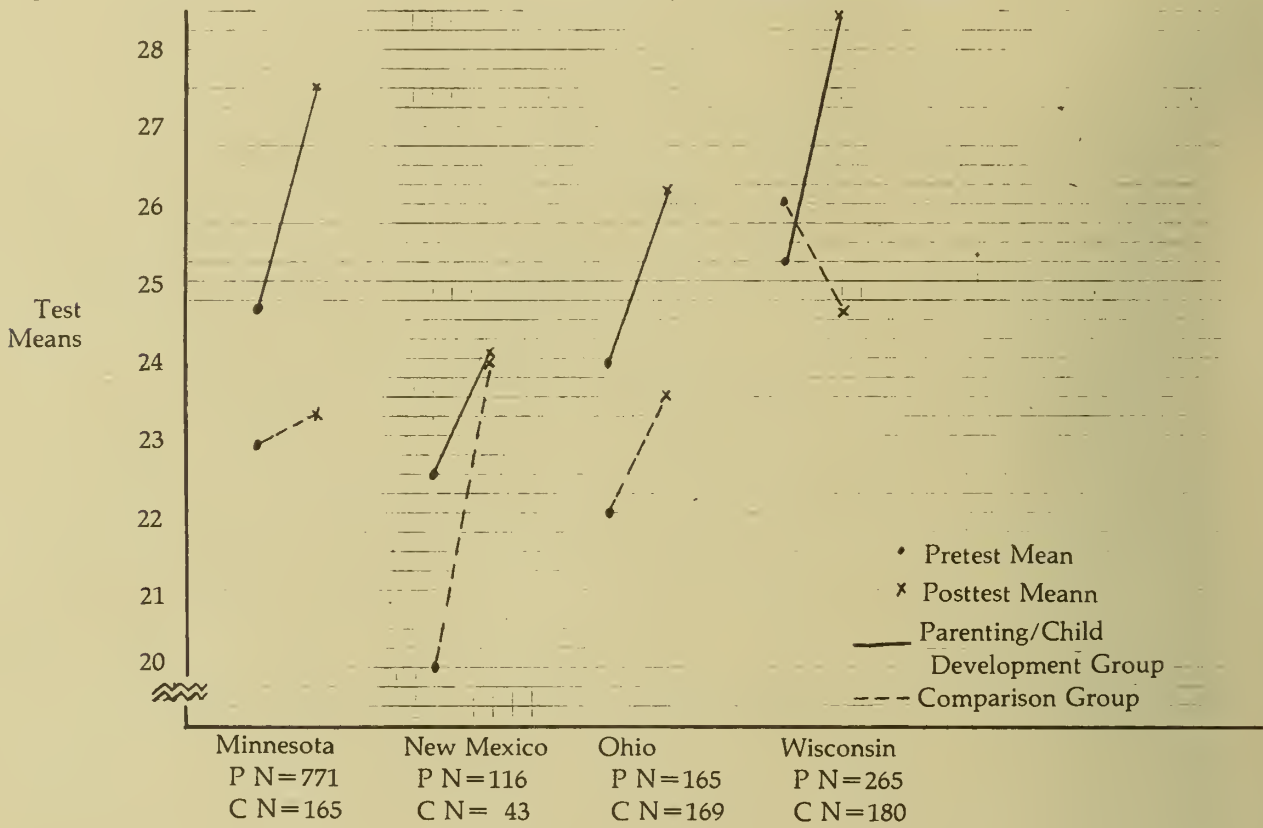
Sample in Combined Study

This study was completed by compiling data from all states which had collected data under similar circumstances. This sample consisted of secondary students in randomly selected schools in Ohio, Minnesota, New Mexico and Wisconsin. The number of students in the experimental group, students currently enrolled in Child Development/Parenting courses, ranged from 116 in New Mexico to 771 in Minnesota. The control group, consisting of students who had not enrolled in such a class, ranged from 43 to 180. The total sample size for the combined study was 1867 students.

Data Analysis and Findings

Data analysis consisted of determining pretest and posttest means for each of four states, Minnesota, New Mexico, Ohio and Wisconsin and then listing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures. Figure 1 shows the plotted means of the pre and posttest scores of the parenting/child development group in each state connected by solid lines and the pre and posttest means of the comparison group connected by broken lines.

Figure 1. Interaction of Pretest, and Posttest Means, Treatment and State



In all cases the parenting group started and ended higher than the comparison group. All posttest scores were higher than pretest scores except for the Wisconsin comparison group. Posttest scores of the parenting/child development group were higher than posttest scores of the comparison group. New Mexico posttest scores for both groups were very close with the parenting/child development group having slightly higher scores. The results of the ANOVA with repeated measures show all variables and their interactions to be statistically significant (Table 1). State times treatment was statistically significant at the .05 level and all other variables/interactions significant at a level beyond .001.

Table 1. Analysis of Variance for Repeated Measure, Parenting/Child Development Cognitive Test

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F	p
State	3010.93	3	1003.64	19.64	.00
Treatment	2296.66	1	2296.66	44.95	.00
State X Treatment	399.45	3	133.15	2.61	.05
Error	95344.86	1866	51.10		
Pretest-Posttest	1458.24	1	1458.24	110.81	.00
PP x State	194.71	3	64.90	4.93	.00
PP x Treatment	297.68	1	297.68	22.62	.00
PP x State X Treatment	676.89	3	225.63	17.14	.00
Error	24557.05	1866	13.16		

The Eta Squares technique was applied to determine the percentage of the variance accounted for by the variables. The variables and interactions each account for a very small percentage which adds to 17% of the total variance (Table 2). That leaves 83% of the variance to be accounted for by the size of the sample, 1867 students.

Table 2. Eta Squares of Parenting/Child Development ANOVA Variables

PROPORTION OF VARIANCE EXPLAINING	
State	= 3.16%
Treatment	= 2.41%
State x Treatment	= .42%
Pretest-Posttest	= 5.94%
Pretest-Posttest x State	= .79%
Pretest-Posttest x Treatment	= 1.21%
Pretest-Posttest x State x Treatment	= 2.76%

Discussion

The findings raise many questions. Are the result influenced by the reliability of the cognitive test which had an average reliability coefficient of .79. How strong was the treatment, that is the instruction which impacts on the posttest scores? Do home economics teachers teach content already known by students? Why is there so little an increase in scores when teachers indicate that they teach the ideas embedded in the items? Are students learning parenting/child development concepts outside the home economics classroom? What other variables besides those measured in this study contribute to the variance? This study provides food for thought by both home economics teachers and researchers.

Dimensions of Outstanding Consumer and Homemaking Programs: The Case Study Approach*

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The intent of this research was to generate case studies of outstanding secondary consumer and homemaking programs across the country. The initial plan for the study was made by eight home economics educators who attended the pre-session AVA workshop on impact research which was held in December, 1978. This group included Dawn Johnson, Connie Ley, Wendy Lofgren, Ruth Mears, Violet Moore, Willodean Moss, Vila Rosenfeld and Marjorie Stewart. This article is an interim report of results of this project.

THE CRITERIA

Dawn Johnson and Wendy Lofgren, both of Wisconsin, developed a set of criteria which was used in making the selection of programs to be studied. They examined the literature and quality standards from state departments and educational institutions. Any program chosen for examination was expected to mirror the qualities spelled out in the criteria which address both quantitative and qualitative dimensions of programs.

THE MODEL

Once the criteria were developed, Mears of Pennsylvania and Ley of Nebraska began the task of designing how to study the programs after they had been judged as meeting the criteria. They began by designing a model which would (1) delineate the variables thought to contribute to program success, and (2) point the interrelationship among the variables. Once the model was in place, it was easier to determine the questions to be addressed in the examination of a given program.

Figure one presents the model used to examine TEACHERS, STUDENTS, CURRICULUM, SUPPORT PERSONNEL, RESOURCES AND THE COMMUNITY as variables. For each variable within a block are highlighted aspects about that variable which were examined during the study. The model may be modified as programs are studied.

THE PROCEDURE

The procedures used in examining the program variables are described in detail in the case study packet. The approach to data collection was based on naturalistic inquiry (Figure 2) which supplies objective data although not experimental in nature. With the naturalistic approach, programs are portrayed as they exist. In no way are the variables controlled by the researcher. The greatest imposition upon the variables is the actual presence of the observer/interviewer.

Methods most often suggested for data collection in the case study packet were (1) observation, (2) interview, and (3) attitude or information surveys.

A battery of tests was selected, adapted, or constructed by Mears and Ley. Each instrument was field tested in selected North Carolina schools under the direction of Vila Rosenfeld. Results from these field tests were analyzed by Mears and Ley. The packet which now exists contain revised materials based on field testing and continued review.

COLLECTING DATA FOR CASE STUDIES

35 invitations were issued to representative teacher educators and state department personnel, asking them to engage in case study development. Approximately 50 percent of those invited expressed interest in receiving a packet of materials. As of this date, seven case studies of outstanding programs based on the model and data collection procedures developed by Mears and Ley have been completed.

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*The procedures for doing case studies, the seven case studies, and the conclusions from the case studies will appear in a monograph published by The Pennsylvania State University.

Figure 1 Model for Program Description

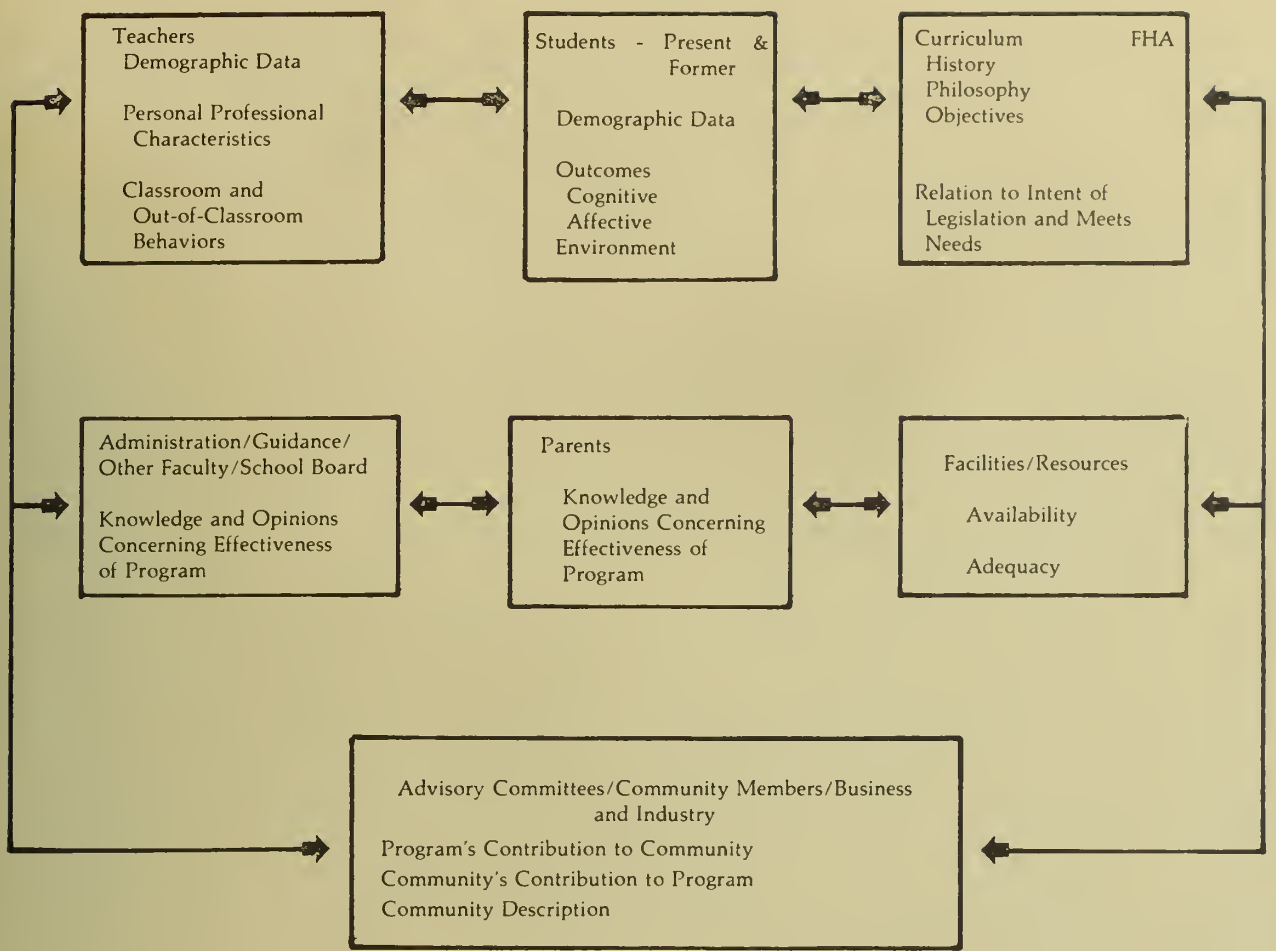
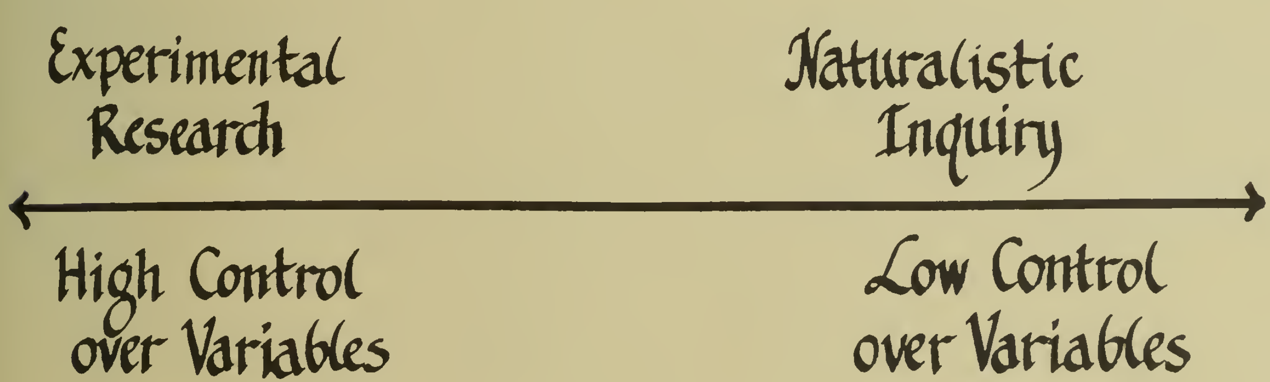


Figure 2



The seven case study programs are reported below by state and the persons collecting the data: (1) Iowa by Marlene Scott and Ruth Hughes, (2) Michigan by Sharon Purdy and Marilyn Parkhurst, (3) Nebraska by Connie Ley, (4) North Carolina by Vila Rosenfeld, (5) Ohio by Gayle Henderson, (6) Pennsylvania by Lucy Campanis, and (7) Virginia by Peggy Dewald and Penny Burge. All data from instruments were analyzed at Penn State except for data collected and analyzed by people in Ohio and North Carolina. In total 226 students and 69 parents completed questionnaires. Interviews and observations collected qualitative data which were validated through instruments used to collect quantitative data.

RESULTS: Characteristics of successful secondary programs

After analyzing all data obtained through interviews, observations, and surveys, generalizations were developed. These outstanding secondary consumer and homemaking programs seem to have the following characteristics:

1) Teachers appear to be the key factor in effective programs.
   Students see teachers of outstanding programs as concerned about them and how they feel.
2) Student involvement at all levels, planning, class activities, and outside activities, relates highly to a successful program.
   Of the students completing questionnaires analyzed at Penn State, 96 percent said everyone in their home economics class enjoyed working together and 92 percent of the students said they were involved in decisions made concerning class activities.
3) A curriculum which provides relevant contemporary experiences adds to a program's success.
   Ninety-six percent of the students recognize that the home economics class is working toward objectives, and a large majority of students saw concepts learned in home economics as being important.
4) Changes in existing programs are facilitated by a teacher's participation in graduate or in-service programs.
5) Community involvement enhances, but is not an essential element of a successful program. Some programs had good community involvement but other programs did not.
6) Resources aid but do not make or break a home economics program.
7) One hundred percent of the parents who completed surveys analyzed at Penn State agreed that home economics is important, includes more than cooking and sewing, is appropriate for men and women, is useful now and in the future; and almost two-thirds of the parents agreed that home economics should be required.
8) Parents see vast potential for what home economics ought to teach, but are not always knowledgeable about whether these concepts are taught. All but four of the 22 concepts were rated by 90 percent or more of the parents as components that ought to be included in home economics. However, parents still expect skill areas to be major components with 100 percent of the parents saying that clothing care, food preparation, and meal planning ought to be taught.
9) Support personnel who are acquainted with the home economics programs and see the contribution it makes to the school and students are another factor related to a program's success.
10) Vocational education money is helpful to programs but is not identified as a key success factor. Vocational education money was identified as more helpful in some programs than in other programs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From examining these data, the following recommendations were made:

1) More case studies of secondary consumer and homemaking programs that meet the criteria of outstanding programs need to be completed. Graduate students need to be encouraged to do this type of research so a greater geographic region is represented and more case studies are developed.
2) Case studies could be useful for other types of outstanding home economics programs, such as occupational, post-secondary, adult, and elementary, based upon criteria developed for these types of home economics programs.
3) State administrators and state supervisors could be more involved in this type of research because it is easily understood by a variety of audiences including legislators, local administrators, and inservice teachers.
4) Continued leadership by designated persons or groups needs to be given to this research in order to provide encouragement and support for naturalistic inquiry; to analyze and synthesize individual case studies; and to verify generalizations through conventional, quantitative research procedures.

Impact Research Focusing on Mildly Mentally Handicapped Students in Secondary Vocational Consumer and Homemaking Programs

The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of instruction for mildly mentally handicapped students (EMR individuals with an IQ of approximately 55-80) which included the development of valid and reliable test instruments for mildly mentally handicapped students enrolled in consumer and homemaking subject matter areas—child development/parenting, nutrition and consumer education. The three instruments were used for testing randomly selected students throughout the state of Minnesota during spring quarter/semester, 1980.

The major question posed for this study was: Is there a difference in the achievement level of mildly mentally handicapped students who have and have not taken courses in either child development/parenting, nutrition or consumer education?

The study design was posttest only. Two groups were involved: mildly mentally handicapped students who had and who had not taken a course in the specific content area being tested.

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Procedure

The major steps taken in the development of the consumer and homemaking tests consisted of (1) a search of literature, (2) identification of subject matter concepts, and (3) development of a suitable test format.

A comprehensive search of literature and related research focused attention on testing instruments appropriate for mildly mentally handicapped students. The search revealed few studies pertaining to evaluation of those students and no evaluation devices or formats for mildly mentally handicapped students enrolled specifically in consumer and homemaking content areas. The few instruments found through "word-of-mouth" were either at the elementary level or were too sophisticated for the target group.

Basic concepts for each of the three subject matter areas were identified from the list of concepts developed by the Ad Hoc Home Economics Research Committee. After explaining home economics resource materials for the age level and working with a panel of experts, modifications were made to insure that the included concepts were essential and appropriate for mildly mentally handicapped students. The panel of experts consisted of subject matter specialists, special education personnel, teacher educators, and secondary classroom teachers.

The prerequisites for the testing format included efficiency in administration and simplicity in use for the mildly mentally handicapped students. Two methods, a flip chart and reading aloud, had appeal but were discarded as being too expensive in either money or time. Experimentation with a 40-item, four-option multiple choice test accompanied by a cassette tape showed that a controlled and standardized situation was possible and that mildly mentally handicapped students, their classroom teachers, and resource personnel approved of the method. Therefore, this format was used for all three tests.

The use of the cassette tape provided multi-sensory instruction, controlled for low reading skill, and provided for a short attention span. In addition, students were able to use the cassette tape recorder with little or no assistance and the tests could be administered at a listening station by an individual other than the teacher.

Construction of the test items involved the use of simple, familiar words and short, concise sentences and phrases. The two items relating to the emotional development of children given below illustrate the difference between the wording for the 'regular' students and the mildly mentally handicapped students.

EXAMPLE I

Wording for 'regular' students:

When children receive adequate expression of affection from their parents, the children will:
A. Find it easier to accept themselves and others
B. Learn to expect their parents to give them gifts as an expression of their affection
C. Become dependent on others for constant display of affection
D. Always be obedient as a way of returning their love

Wording for mildly mentally handicapped students:

When children receive enough love from their parents, the children will:
A. Find it easier to accept themselves and others
B. Act spoiled
C. Depend on others for love
D. Always behave

An attempt was made to include questions above the knowledge level. For instance, the questions included below require the student to apply information relating to nutrition to a particular situation.

EXAMPLE II

Three-year-old Scott likes a snack in the morning. Which of the following would have the best nutrition for him?
A. Lemonade
B. Kool-aid
C. Fruit-flavored drink
D. Fruit juice

Which food from the vending machine would give you the most nutrition?
A. Potato chips
B. Peanuts
C. Licorice
D. Candy bar

The consumer education test contained some pictures and illustrations. Numerous pictures were used on the first draft of the test; reactions from the students during testing indicated that too many pictures were distracting and confusing. The consumer education test has now been revised to contain only essential illustrations such as the label below.

EXAMPLE III

Use the label below for the next three questions

What company makes this sauce?
A. Hunt's
B. Sloppy Joe
C. Manwich
D. Hunt-Wesson Foods

The ingredient in the greatest amount is
A. Sugar
B. Water
C. Ground beef
D. Tomatoes

What do you need to add to make these sloppy joes?
A. Salt
B. Ground beef
C. Onion
D. Oil

Subjects

A total of 138 mildly mentally handicapped students were administered one of the three tests. Of these students, 26 were enrolled in child development/parenting, 34 in nutrition, and 13 in consumer education. The non-treatment group consisted of an additional 65 mildly mentally handicapped students who had not taken a course in the specific content area being tested. Generally, the two groups of students (those enrolled in the courses and those who were not) were divided by sex. Sixty percent of the students in the non-treatment group were males, while only 14% of the mildly mentally handicapped students who had taken the consumer and homemaking courses were males and almost all of these individuals were enrolled in foods and nutrition courses.

Findings

1. The mean scores of the mildly mentally handicapped students who had taken the child development/parenting course were higher than those not having taken the course. Little difference was found between the means on the other tests; however, the students who had not taken nutrition and consumer education courses scored slightly higher on the tests. Using a SPSS program, t-tests were performed between those students who had and had not taken the course for each of the three tests. The results of the child development/parenting test showed a significance; the other two did not.

2. Inspection of the consumer education test indicated 66% of the group that had taken the course and 72% of the group that had not taken the course did not choose the fourth option. The child development/parenting tests did not show as consistent a pattern but did show that for approximately half of the test items, one or two alternatives were not chosen.

Conclusions

1. All three tests are usable but the nutrition and consumer education tests need further revisions, such as increasing the number of higher level questions. Since the nutrition test was especially heavy on knowledge level questions, it is conceivable that the students who have never taken a nutrition course could have learned the facts from many other sources, including health courses, television programs, and advertisements in newspapers and magazines.

2. Consideration should be given to using fewer than 40 items and/or using the three-option as opposed to the four-option multiple choice item.

3. The use of the cassette tape in conjunction with the test instrument itself offered several advantages: (a) elimination of reading as a factor in taking the test, (b) use of multi-sensory instruction, (c) consistency in terms of administering the test from school to school, (d) reduction of time on the part of individual teachers or resource persons to administer the test.

4. Reliabilities indicate the instruments are presently within an acceptable range for classroom testing of mildly mentally handicapped students.

The groups tested were small but have provided valuable information as a basis for developing more and better tests for use with mildly mentally handicapped students.

Ideas from Student Teachers* . . .

Teaching Food Buying

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Objectives:

Students will be able to increase their knowledge of food buying.
Students will show interest and enthusiasm for the study of food buying.

Principles to be taught:

1. Knowledge affects decisions in food buying.
2. Comparison shopping can aid consumers in choosing food items that are high in nutrition and low in cost.
3. Information found on most food labels can aid consumers in comparing the nutritional value of food items.
4. The Basic Four Food Groups is one guide for judging the nutritional value of a day's diet.
5. Some people hold strong opinions in regard to nutrition which are not based on fact.
6. Food stores use psychological strategies to encourage consumers to purchase more items.

Activity:

Students will participate in a survey of food buying questions organized in stations around the room.

Station 1 Compare two kinds of the same food.

Students will taste two kinds of brownies and of lemon drinks (labels covered) and try to decide which brand is which. Compare cost with taste preference.

Brownies: Betty Crocker or Generic
Lemon Drink: Kool-Aid or Country-Time

Station 2 Compare two day's meals.

Meals for Day 1	*Meals for Day 2*
Cereal	Pancakes
Orange juice	Sausage
Milk	Grapefruit juice
	Milk
Peanut Butter & Jelly Sandwich	Macaroni & Cheese
Carrot and Raisin Salad	Celery Sticks
Apple	Banana Bread
Milk	Milk
Steak	Meat Loaf
Baked Potato	Mashed Potatoes
Jello and Pineapple	Rolls
Roll and Butter	Milk
Milk	Ice Cream
Peaches & Ice Cream	

*Let us hear from *your* student teachers, too!

Underline the foods in the bread and cereal group.
Circle the foods in the milk group.
Put a check beside the foods in the fruit and vegetable group.
Put an X beside the foods in the other group. What is it? ______________
Which day's menu lacks the recommendations of the Basic Four Food Groups?
Why? ____

Station 3 Identify the food represented by the nutrient value card.
(Use National Dairy Council Comparison cards with the food name covered.)

1. Is this
   a. orange juice
   b. green peas
   c. celery
2. Is this
   a. whole milk
   b. chocolate milk
   c. cottage cheese
3. Is this
   a. baked potato
   b. French fries
   c. sweet potato

Station 4 Compare two cereals.
Display two cereal boxes
(a) Shredded Wheat (b) Sugar Frosted Flakes

1. Which cereal is fortified?
2. Which cereal is the most nutritious for the least number of calories?
   (This is called nutrient density.)
3. Which cereal has sugar added?
4. Which cereal is whole grain?
5. Which cereal has more fiber?
6. Which cereal has more trace minerals besides iron?
   If label does not tell you, how would you find out?

Station 5 Fact or Fallacy?

1. Vitamin supplements (pills) are needed by most Americans to insure an adequate diet.
   True or false
2. "Organically-grown" foods have more vitamins than standard grown foods.
   True or false
3. Generic brands are always poorer quality than brand names. True or false
4. Nationally advertised brands usually cost more than other brands. True or false
5. Convenience foods usually save time and cost more. True or false

Station 6 Merchandising strategies

1. Three food types generally placed around the rear and side walls of a food store are:
   a. specialty items
   b. meats
   c. generic brands
   d. dairy products
   e. fresh produce
2. Which cereal will most likely be placed on the middle shelf (of 3 shelves)
   a. Total
   b. Captain Crunch
   c. Cream of Wheat
   d. Corn Flakes
   e. Product 19
   Why? ____

3. If a store has a loss leader
   a. the store must throw away a box of defective food
   b. the store loses money because of shop-lifters
   c. the store has lost profit that is not made up by increases in sales
   d. none of the above

Station 7 Compare two cans of tuna

Display two cans of tuna, one packed in oil and one in water

1. What is the major difference between these two cans of tuna? ______________________
2. Which can of tuna has more calories? ______________ Fat? ______________

Station 8 Compare two lunches

Meal A	*Meal B*
Macaroni & cheese	Hamburger & enriched roll
Apple	French fries
Celery sticks	Yogurt
Chocolate Pudding	Apple pie
Milk	Tea

1. Which meal is higher in calories?
2. Which meal has more iron?
3. Which meal has more calcium?
4. Which meal has more fiber?
5. Which meal has more vitamin A?

If the label does not tell you some of the above, how would you find out?

Station 9

1. A pepsi cup, can, and bottle are bought from a vending machine.
   (a) Note the price and quantity of pepsi in each.

	price	amount	cost per oz
cup	________¢	________ oz	____________
can	________¢	________ oz	____________
bottle	________¢	________ oz	____________

   (b) Which would you buy?
   1. cup
   2. can
   3. bottle
   4. none of the above

   (c) Why?

2. Comparison shopping for food involves looking at:
   a. price
   b. quality
   c. quantity
   d. nutritional value
   e. all of the above
   f. none of the above

KEY

Station 2

Day 1	*Day 2*
Cereal	*Pancakes*
✓ orange juice	X Sausage
milk	✓ Grapefruit juice
	milk
X Peanut Butter-Jelly *Sandwich*	*Macaroni* and Cheese
✓ Carrot-raisin salad	✓ celery sticks
✓ Apple	*Banana Bread*
Milk	Milk
X Steak	X Meat Loaf
✓ Baked Potatoes	✓ Mashed Potatoes
✓ Jello and Pineapple	*Rolls*
Roll and Butter	Milk
Milk	Ice Cream
✓ Peaches and Ice Cream	

The 4th group is meat, eggs and legumes. Day 2 is short on fruits and vegetables

Station 4
1. b
2. a
3. b
4. a
5. a
6. a Look in a dependeable reference or ask your teacher.

Station 5
1. false
2. false
3. false
4. true
5. true

Station 6
1. b, d, e
2. b because it is a high interest cereal for children and is placed at the eye level of a child in a shopping cart
3. d

Station 7
1. One is packed in oil, the other in water.
2. The one packed in oil has more calories and more fat.

Station 8
1. B
2. B
3. A
4. A
5. A
5. Not much in either one but A has more. Look in a dependable reference or ask your teacher.

Station 9
1. (a) copy the prices and calculate
   (b) own judgment
   (c) answer could be based on cost, convenience, or personal preference. If judgment is "none of the above", answer could be not healthy, empty calorie, too expensive, don't like it, or other.
2. e

Time Controlling Tips for Household Work

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Over half of all married women are performing combined roles of wage earners and home managers. Many of these busy women are also mothers of pre-school and school-age children, adding many tasks to their multiple roles. These women want all the tips they can find for planning, organizing, and controlling their household work time.

I have used the following list of time controlling tips with adult groups of working women and in college home management classes to stimulate discussion, to summarize a lesson or unit on time management, and as a handout at workshops on time management and dual careers.

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1. Keep lists of 5-, 10-, and 30-minute tasks. Become a "wait-watcher." Carry a paperback, notebook, or letter paper and when you find yourself waiting in a doctor's office or waiting to pick up someone, write letters, read, or make a list.
2. List daily, weekly, and occasional tasks. Make a plan for your routine tasks but think in large blocks of time.
3. Establish daily, weekly, and seasonal housekeeping plans:
   a. The house is always in reasonably good order and clean to acceptable standards.
   b. Seasonal housecleaning is eliminated.
   c. One large task each week is less time and energy consuming then a week of thorough cleaning once or twice a year (and who wants to spend their vacation cleaning house?).
   d. Doing daily tasks and some weekly tasks each day spreads the housekeeping tasks throughout the week and peak periods can be avoided.
4. Group tasks that can be "dovetailed". All jobs have three parts: get ready, the job itself, and the clean-up. Combine the clean-up of one job with the get ready of another. Example: Set the table while putting away the dishes.
5. Delegate responsibilities to others. This is a fundamental tool of time planning.
   a. Enlist cooperation.
   b. Involve family members in decision-making.
   c. Don't expect a new routine to develop overnight.
   d. Don't re-do the work of another just because the job isn't done to your standards as this will kill his/her desire to try again.
   e. Be patient!
   f. Start gradually by assigning small tasks.
6. Working couples should strive toward *equity*—where responsibilities are shared equitably and fairly, with each partner having a sense of involvement and reward, rather than equality, where time and household chores are rigidly divided and altered along strictly equal lines. (Rapoport, *Dual Career Families*, Penguin Books, 1971)
7. Identify "time-wasters" and see which ones you can control. Procrastination is an internally generated time-waster which you can control. Interruptions are externally generated time-wasters which you may be able to control. Your attitude toward wasting time is the key. When you learn to set priorities and zero in on the most important tasks many time-wasters can be eliminated.
8. Apply Lakein's six basic ideas to your many roles. (Alan Lakein, *How to Get Control of Your Time and Your Life*, Signet Books, 1973)
   a. List goals.
   b. Set priorities. (Label your goals and tasks A, B, C.)
   c. Make a daily to-do list.
   d. Start with your "A's" and not your "C's."
   e. Ask yourself "What is the best use of my time *right now*."
   f. Do it NOW!

Creating an Awareness

Evaluation of Home Economics Textbooks For Biases

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Are only girls homemakers? Can boys learn to cook, too? Do we have tailors *and* seamstresses in Nigeria? Can fathers give their own children a bath? Are women only the interior decorators and men the architects? Do our students see only Europeans in the pictures of our Home Economics textbooks, eating European foods, using European objects, wearing European dress?

If we look at instructional materials in our home economics classrooms, we will find that the answers to these questions are almost always "yes." For textbooks, films, filmstrips and other learning materials have usually been created by Europeans *for* European schools. Too often we have to use these materials because no others are available. And too often the male chauvinism of European countries invades the textbook, challenging much of our Nigerian culture. The European has determined that the woman should cook, sew, tend the children, clean the house, and go to the store. Whereas, in many Nigerian societies, we often find the man going to market, caring for the children, tailoring clothes, or keeping his own house. In fact, many Nigerian hotels employ men as chefs and in our past we have found men serving as cooks for Europeans.

We are no longer living in an era when these thoughts and ideas can go unchallenged. No longer can we as teachers allow these materials to play a dominant role in our classroom *without supplementing them with other materials* or challenging their biases with personal statements. There is a need to evaluate home economics material for several elements, including a multiplicity of roles and performances for Nigerians and Africans (both male and female) as well as appropriate balance between the practical and theoretical. Only when we can become aware of the biases in our textbooks will our efforts to teach Nigerian children about their culture, *while they live in that culture*, be supported by what they see, hear and read. Creating an awareness in teachers of these biases in textbooks can lead teachers to use materials more appropriately in the classroom. Once an awareness has been created, teachers can, on their own, make their classroom teaching more relevant to Nigerian culture and society.

This paper addresses itself to biases in instructional materials and how we can find these biases through the use of a simple evaluation tool. The evaluation techniques presented here are equally useful for most types of instructional materials. The guidelines and instruments which we used will need to be tested and revised over time. Some general evaluative-type statements, about the field of home economics can first be generated as background for the development of an evaluation instrument.

General Evaluative Statements:

Home Economics is a multi-dimensional, multi-disciplinary based subject. Mathematics, science, English, and social studies concepts are integrated into the home economics curriculum. The content of home economics can be woven into all other areas of the curriculum.

The variety and appropriateness of the methods developed in the textbook should also contribute to the multi-disciplinary approach of home economics. Since home economics is a practical science, the theory (or the WHY) presented should be balanced by practical examples and presentations (or the HOW). These practicals should prepare students for changes so necessary in a developing society. Nigeria is rapidly changing and the practical-theory balance in home economics should reflect these changes. Textbooks which are too highly theoretical for the learners, or which focus almost entirely on the practical, are considered biased.

Examples of objects and persons of a particular culture foreign to one's own cannot as readily change a learner's knowledge, attitudes and behaviour and produce the expected learning outcomes as examples of one's own culture and society. In this respect, our home economics textbooks too often reflect the European culture and society for which the textbook was most likely written. The content of such a textbook could be considered culturally biased.

Pictures, objects, practical demonstrations and applications to other subjects in the curriculum can become an integral part of the learning environment if a teacher is aware of the areas of a textbook which need supplementation. Thus, an evaluation tool which helps a teacher to determine areas of modification can become a benefit to the classroom teacher.

Development of Evaluative Instrument:

The model of evaluation we used was based on five criteria: (1) Variety, (2) Multi-Disciplinary base, (3) Balance, (4) Cultural Relevance, and (5) Inclusion of both sexes.

Indicators of *variety* will change from time to time as the society changes and as the content of home economics adds new dimensions. Topics under each major heading in home economics can be compared to the topics in the textbook. As new topics are developed, indicating changes in the variety of content, they should rapidly be incorporated in revised editions of the text.

Application to other subject areas is determined by counting the number of references made to the application of other subject (e.g., science, mathematics, and social studies) concepts and processes to home economics. Thus, it can be judged to what degree a textbook has a *multi-disciplinary* base.

The third criterion is that of balance, in terms of theory and practicality. Step-by-step examples, diagrams and pictures can be counted and compared to the number of pages of theoretical discussions.

The fourth criterion, *cultural relevance*, provides for the simple counting of references to Nigerians and Africans in text and/or illustrations. Thus, it can be judged to what extent a text is relevant to our society and culture.

The fifth criterion is *inclusion* for both males and females in a variety of roles and performances throughout each chapter of the textbook. This criterion is closely related to the fourth in that both males and females should be performing roles that are relevant to Nigeria.

Evaluation Instrument:

Each of these criteria was developed in the evaluative instrument we used to evaluate our textbooks.

The first part of the instrument is a *worksheet* on which the teacher records the actual number of applications, practicals and references which occur in each chapter. The second part of the instrument is the scoring sheet onto which the totals from the counting exercise are transferred and percentages calculated.

Once the scoring sheet is complete, the teacher makes an evaluative judgment concerning the use of the textbook to use or not to use. If used, there is a further judgment of how much supplementation is needed. Students can help evaluate their own texts, see the biases and offer suggestions for improving the learning environment.

Unpacking the Values Bag

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Persons are often perplexed when they are asked "What are your values?" They may respond, "I like classical music, good books, and movies," or "My values are honesty, education, and acceptance," or "I value most those things that add to human dignity." Most of these do not reveal very much about the nature of valuing, i.e., what persons do when they value and how they arrive at their values.

Strictly speaking, a person does not "have" values but rather s/he performs an activity the outcome of which is a decision or judgment that something is or is not worthy of being valued. This "something," after the act is performed, has or does not have value.

Obviously, the activity referred to in the preceding paragraph is a very special kind of activity, not strange or unusual, but special. It yields a judgment of worth, and this worth can be expressed in degrees.

If persons do not *have* values, what can we say about them with respect to values? We can say, I believe, that they have characteristics, skills, beliefs, knowledge, and objects that they have judged to be important for them. Some of these might well be listed by a person in response to the question, "What do you value?" In a different sense, persons also have a repertoire of standards, criteria, rules, concepts, and principles that they tend to apply in judging the worth of objects of all sorts that they encounter through life. These standards, etc., are likely to be expressed in response to the question, "What are your values?" as well as, "What are your criteria for judging?"

Thus, when persons talk about their values, they may be referring to 1) objects they have judged to be valuable, 2) standards they tend to apply, and 3) objects they like or prefer.

Where do the standards come from? One obvious answer would be that standards are adopted by a person by the application of super standards that are used to validate lesser standards. That appears satisfying at first blush until the question is asked, "Where do the super standards come from?" The regression could go on and on.

As a practical matter, however, we need to find some way out of the infinite regression. One way out of the "standard via super standard via epi-super standard" regression is to look for alternative means of validating standards. One could say at any point along the standard-tracing path, "My parents (or teacher or religion) gave me that standard and that's good enough for me." However, the obvious next questions are "Where did they get it?" and "Why did you accept it so willingly?"

Another possible way out is to skirt the "Where did it come from?" question and seek, rather, a justification for holding the standard by applying a series of tests: (1) a *verification* test: "Is that really a standard you apply consistently?"; (2) a *validating* test: "Is the standard consistent with other standards you make use of?"; (3) a *vindicating* test could be attempted: "Is that standard as well as these other consistent standards consistent with your way of life?"; and (4) the *volitional* test: "Did you freely choose your way of life?"

The full proposition now suggests that if all four tests are passed, then the standard enjoys all the justification it needs, whatever its original source.

A relationship between holding standards and having emotional responses to objects can now be explored. The guiding assumption is that an emotional response is an indicator of a standard held. This relationship between attitudes and standards is important in value analysis because it offers a route of access to a person's standards. While the question, "What standards do you apply in judging a painting?" might produce only a blank stare, questions trading on a person's emotional response to a painting may produce an immediate answer, "It stinks!" or "I love it!" or "I like the colors okay, but it looks like it was painted with a broom."

The first two answers are attitudinal. "It stinks" signifies a con attitude and "I love it", a pro attitude. While neither expression reveals the standard that was applied, we can assume with both that standards are lurking somewhere. To find them we may ask "Why do you think it stinks?" or "Why do you love it?" Such questions may be thought of as justification-seeking questions. That is, they are requests for the person expressing the attitude to give his/her reasons for having such an attitude toward the painting. The person answers, "It stinks because all modern art stinks" or "I love it because it makes me feel good inside." Each answer reveals the semblance of a standard following the word *because*.

The third answer above about "okay colors" and "broom strokes" has already taken us this step toward standard revelation. We know that the judge thinks highly of certain uses of color and technical competency in applying it to canvas. These standards need more fleshing out, too, of course.

Standards tend to belong to *points of view* or sub-systems within a whole value system. If we suppose that all of a person's standards taken together comprise his/her value system, then it is possible to suppose further that these standards can be categorized into several sub-systems. Moreover, we may suppose that each sub-system is more or less identifiable with some particular way of looking at objects. The questions and answers used for the illustration above appeared to be focused on the "art quality" of a painting. References to color, brushing technique, style, and possibly even to imagination (feeling good inside) suggest the use of one particular way of looking at a painting, i.e., judging its aesthetic qualities. These persons, we could say, were making use of their aesthetic sub-system of standards. They seemed to take an aesthetic point of view in judging the painting.

A painting can also be judged from an economic point of view. There seems nothing wrong about saying, "I love the *Mona Lisa*, but it's a bit too expensive for me to hang in my living room." The sentence simply reveals the application of two different standards. Other points of view or standards include legal, intellectual, religious, political, etiquette or custom, prudential and moral.

Most objects that are subject to evaluation—and that is most objects—can be evaluated by using standards from several points of view. In fact, the more kinds of standards we use the more satisfying our evaluation. To evaluate *Medicare*, for example, we might use standards that are economic, political, legal, religious, and moral.

To this point, we have purposely limited the points of view to the main ones employed in our culture. Some claim that these nine—moral, legal, political, economic, aesthetic, intellectual, religious, etiquette, and prudential—are universal points of view. Whether that is the case will not be argued here. It is sufficient here to suggest that these nine can be thought of as primary points of view, and there are also secondary or special points of view.

The number of points of view that are identified may be less important than their function in evaluation. A point of view is the home of a given sub-set of standards. Similarly, a point of view maintains proprietorship over certain characteristics that potentially belong to objects. Thus, we may say of a standard, for example one that says something about brushing techniques or one that says something about color harmony, that it "belongs" to an aesthetic point of view. Similarly, when we note as characteristics of an object, say, the brush marks and coloration of a painting, we may suppose that we are taking an aesthetic point of view. To take into account whether you can afford to buy it is to take an economic point of view in judging the painting.

Different points of view do not mix well logically. It would be odd for us to say of a painting, "As for color harmony, it costs too much," for too much cost refers to an economic standard while color harmony is an aesthetic characteristic. Thus, recognizing the point of view being taken in an evaluation allows us a means of judging the relevance of what is being expressed. I can certainly say of Leonardo's *Mona Lisa* that its composition, tone, and coloring are perfect and in the same discussion say that any picture that costs more than $500 is too dear for my living room, if it is well understood that the economic standard expressed is not relevant to the aesthetic qualities being rated. The painting's composition, tone, and coloring remain the same and are properly rated with reference to an aesthetic standard relevant to those characteristics no matter what the price tag says.

That is not to say that no cross-over of characteristics and standards is proper. A major characteristic of the *Mona Lisa* is that it is a da Vinci. Aesthetically, we may be willing to say, "Any da Vinci is a great painting." Economically, we may also be willing to say, "For any da Vinci, I'll double my $500 limit." The statement illustrates that an aesthetic attribute can have economic implications.

In evaluation, point of view also functions as an aid in ranking of standards and characteristics. It is often the case that an object being judged from two or more points of view will be given a mixed judgment. Suppose that Medicare can be shown to improve the health of the nation. By applying the standard, "Something that improves the nation's health is good," Medicare is rated as a good program. We are willing to say, "A program like that ought to be instituted." At the same time, suppose we learn that Medicare will cost every person in the United States an extra $100 in taxes each year. That is a lot of money; so we say, "Something that raises taxes by $100 per capita per year is intolerable." Thus, Medicare ought to be abandoned.

Now what do we do? Morally, Medicare is good. Economically, Medicare is bad. If we follow the moral standard, we vote for Medicare. If we follow the economic standard, we vote against Medicare. Leaving aside for the moment the question of *how much* healthier we will be with

Medicare than without it, we can illustrate how point of view can help resolve the dilemma.

There are at least two ways to resolve the issue. One way would be to assume that by scrimping a bit on some medical services, we would be putting our two standards together into a "combined standard" which states, "A program that improves the nation's health for less than $100 per capita per year is good." We appear to acknowledge the moral importance of such a program while deferring to an economic limitation. If it works, that is an acceptable and normal solution. We do it all the time.

However, the supposed solution may be like saying, "I'll buy a Rolls Royce if it doesn't cost more than $10,000. Since one does not buy a Rolls Royce, even a used one, for $10,000, possibly an effective Medicare program cannot be had for less than $100 per capita per year, either. So as a result of applying the combined moral/economic standard to an impossible situation, we have effectively ranked the two parts with the economic part taking priority over the moral part.

Another approach to the original dilemma where Medicare was morally good but economically bad is to make a prior decision about all potential conflicts between morality and economics, e.g., a super standard that "When a moral standard is opposed to an economic standard in a given situation, I'll choose the moral option."

A review of what we have discussed thus far may help in determining what else should be included in order to give a minimal account of valuing.

First, we have stated that an object needs to be identified as the focus of the evaluation process. The object being subjected to the process can be called the value object. Thus, I am able to regard a house I am considering for purchase, my 1970 Chrysler, the brakes on my car, Medicare, *The Sun Times*, etc., each as a value object.

Second, we stated or implied that the process entails the examination of features or characteristics of the value object. For example, I note that the house I am considering (a) is 25 years old, (b) needs paint, (c) is on a bus line, (d) is near a good school, (e) has two baths, and (f) costs $50,000.

Each characteristic is rated and these ratings are expressed as "I like that feature" or by applying a standard that the characteristic being looked at appears to satisfy.

That characteristics are seen as good and bad is the third feature of our analysis scheme. The fourth feature is that good characteristics are associated with having a pro-attitude toward the value object as a whole and bad characteristics the reverse.

Perhaps it would be useful to extend our examination of the relationship between the *characteristics* of value objects and of value objects as a whole. To like a single characteristic is not to like the object but it disposes one to have a pro attitude toward the object. If a characteristic has a neutral effect on my attitude toward the value object, it will play a neutral role in my judgment of it. Only those characteristics that generate an emotional response in the judge will figure in the value process.

The fifth feature is that the judgment of a characteristic as good or bad is warranted by the application of a standard that one has for judging just such characteristics. To say, "I like that feature," is to imply the satisfaction of a standard applied to the characteristic. When a characteristic satisfies a criterion, it becomes a good characteristic and presumably yields a pro-attitude toward the value object.

Sixth, we have supposed that criteria belong to points of view. Though not without some crossovers here and there, criteria are distinguished by their points of view. "Honesty is the best policy," for example, would seem to belong to the moral point of view, while "a penny saved is a penny earned" belongs to the economic point of view. Stated as criteria applicable to features of a given value object, these aphorisms might sound somewhat different. "Honesty is the best policy" might surface as "Representing honestly the features of a product for sale is good;" "A penny saved is a penny earned" might appear as "It is good to buy a product for the lowest price possible."

The logical relationship among the features of value object, characteristics, attitudes, criteria and points of view in this analysis system can now be developed. The presumption is that we are interested in judging whether a value object is good and possibly whether it is better than other objects that may be thought of as competitors. Such judgments are properly called value judgments. As a means of developing the relationships, I shall use the analysis process on a sample value object, "the demand abortion of pregnancies in unwed teenage women in the first trimester of pregnancy."

We could, of course, take a much broader value object, say "abortion in the first trimester of pregnancy" or even "abortion," each of which greatly expands the object. The governing truism which appears to fit here is "the bigger the question, the harder to answer." I will opt for the easier course for this illustration.

The question being asked may be variously put: "Should I approve or disapprove of a policy of demand abortions for unwed teenagers in their first trimester of pregnancy?" "Should I approve or disapprove of *this* abortion demanded by *this* unwed teenager . . . ?" There are many ways to put the question either as a policy question or a case question. While it may make some difference whether we start with a policy question or a case question, the assumption is that a value judgment evoked even in a single case is broadly applicable to all cases like the one at hand. So, to say in the end, "I approve (or disapprove) of *this* abortion for these reasons" means, in effect, "I approve (or disapprove) of this abortion *and all others like it* for these reasons." Further, to say in the end that "I approve (or disapprove) of a policy . . . " is to say that "a policy of demanded abortions . . . is a good (or bad) thing;" and vice versa. To believe otherwise denies the validity of the process of evaluating. If a person judges a policy to be a good one, then reneges on the application of that policy to a case or otherwise declares that he/she doesn't personally approve of the policy, the assumption is that an unexpressed, private, and telling criterion has successfully challenged his/her public judgment. Universal applicability is a criterion of a "true" value judgment. Thus we propose to subject to analysis the value object: the policy of demand abortions for unwed teenage females in the first trimester of pregnancy, hereafter referred to as "the policy" or "the teenage abortion policy." Meanings would have to be stipulated for each part of the value object in order for the valuing process to work.

For purposes of discussion, here are my selected descriptive statements of "The Policy."

1. The policy would encourage promiscuity among teenagers.
2. Hospitals would have to deny needed medical attention to others in order to abort these pregnancies.
3. Without the policy, teenagers would seek unsafe abortions.
4. A 13 year-old female could demand an abortion without parental consent.
5. The father's "right" to his child would be aborted also.
6. Fetal abortion is the killing of a human being.
7. Many of these fetuses, if allowed birth, would become unwanted babies.
8. Most unwed teenagers would not be able to support a child.
9. Childbirth is more dangerous to young females than is abortion.
10. The policy would permit the young female to decide how her body will be used.
11. The abortion rate would climb precipitously.
12. Many teenage females could not pay for their abortions; hospital costs for everyone would rise.
13. The trauma of abortion could mar the teenage female's personality development.
14. The baby, if allowed birth, could be adopted.

There are several ways we could deal with these statements. As a start, we can divide them into types, e.g., facts, predictions, definitions.

Clearly definitional type statements, that is, statements that express a relationship between meanings, are numbers 4, 5, 6, and 10. In 4 and 5, "demand abortion" is taken to mean "abortion without consultation with parents or lover." In 6, abortion is defined as killing. In 10, "decide how her body will be used" is offered as an equivalent expression for "demand abortion" and its obverse, not having an abortion. That is, the female can decide to carry the fetus or abort it, thus implying a decision on the use of her body.

Numbers 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, and 12 predict consequences with varying degrees of certainty. Since a prediction is a special kind of factual assertion, these statements are all subject to common tests. They possibly could be ranked or rated according to their certainty.

Among the six statements that are clearly predictive in nature, numbers 12, 7, and 3 have a fair probability, say, a better than 50/50 chance, of coming true. Hospital costs would probably rise, as in 12; many of these babies would probably be unwanted, at least by the teenage mother, as in 7; and without the policy, teenagers would seek abortions elsewhere, as in 3. The other three statements enjoy less probability. Promiscuity, a practice more sensitive to other factors, would not likely be affected much, as in 1; hospitals are not generally so overcrowded as to deny needed services (though it could happen, of course), as in 2; and the abortion rate would probably not be affected too much. Abortions would be available and sought out somewhere with or without the policy.

Statements 8, 9, 13, and 14 appear to allege facts that are less clearly predictive than the six noted in the previous paragraph. Among these, 8, 9, and 14, asserting inability to support, the comparative danger of childbirth, and adoption possibilities, are likely more true than 13 that suggests the possibility of psychological damage.

Whether my estimates are accurate or not is beside the point of the illustration. Supposing they are accurate, we now have one way of treating the data. We have a way of avoiding the influence of inaccurate facts and predictions. We eliminate the less accurate material from our consideration *for the time being*. If, at a later time, however, the information takes on added relevance because of a turn in the investigation and if the statement is changed to be more accurate, then it may be replaced.

Let us suppose, further, that on a valence criterion, I am able to eliminate still another act, another prediction, and two definitional statements. The valence criterion asserts that a characteristic toward which a person has neutral feelings, has no important effect on a judgment about the value object. Suppose, therefore, with respect to statements 4 and 5 ("demand abortions" means "abortions without consultation with parents or lover"), I say, "I can see both sides; sometimes I lean one way and sometimes the other." By that, I mean that I am ambivalent; the non-consultation characteristic generate both pro- and con-attitudes toward the policy. I cannot make up my mind whether 4 and 5 are good-making or bad-making characteristics. Logically, what that means is that two or more competing criteria which appear to be applicable to 4 and 5 are cancelling each other out. Thus, I can eliminate 4 and 5, *for the time being*, because they are not likely to influence my judgment one way or the other toward the policy.

Moreover, let us suppose that in my present state of mind, 7 and 14 possess *no* value for me. I can eliminate them *for the time being*.

In each of these cases of elimination on the valence criterion, I must recognize that my attitude may change in the course of my deliberations. If that should occur, then I being a reasonable person pursuing a reasonable process of making a judgment, would replace whichever statements loom as more influential. Of course, other statements may wane in the process. The possible waxing and waning of the influence of characteristics is a function of the application of the valence criterion. We are now left with six high valence characteristics of the policy. For convenience, I will try to translate these into shorter statements without changing their meanings.

The two definitional statements are:

6. Abortion is killing.
10. Demand abortion means deciding on the use of one's body.

The two factual statements are:

8. Most unwed teenagers cannot support a child.
9. Childbirth is more dangerous than abortion.

The two predictive statements are:

3. Without policy, teenagers would seek unsafe abortions.
12. Hospital costs would rise.

The claim I am making is that these characteristics are good or bad features of the policy toward which I feel quite strongly. As such each disposes me to have a pro or con attitude toward the policy. Thus, I am able to say, "I tend to like the policy because ____________________ and I think it is good."

In either case, you would be justified in requesting to see further justification for my judgment. The assumption is that there is something more behind my assertions than the statement of a characteristic. Even if I had listed *all* the characteristics that make me feel one way or the other or judge one way or the other, you would still be justified in requesting further justification for my assertions, for the assumption is that feelings and judgments are justified by standards applied in the situation. The further justification requested is the expression of the applied standards.

Allow me the shortcut of displaying all of the six characteristic statements in a figure that also includes an indication of the attitude associated with each characteristic and a short statement of the criterion by which the characteristic is judged and the attitude is justified. The point of view of the criterion is also shown.

The characteristics, attitudes, and criteria in this display are, on my claims of accuracy and valence, relevant to a judgment about the teenage abortion policy. Reading horizontally, each set of features permits the formation of statements like the following:

> "I do not like the teenage abortion policy because it encourages abortion which is the killing of a potential human being; a policy that results in the killing of human beings is morally bad."
>
> "I like the teenage abortion policy because it permits a pregnant teenager to decide how her body will be used; a policy that permits a person to decide on the use of one's body is morally good."

Some Possible Factors in a Value Judgment

Characteristic	*Attitude*	*Criterion*	*Point of View*
6. Abortion is killing	con	A policy that results in the killing of human beings is bad.	Moral
10. Demand abortion means deciding on the use of one's body.	pro	A policy that permits a person to to decide on the use of one's body is good.	Moral
8. Most unwed teenagers cannot support a child.	pro	A policy that helps prevent the birth of children in situations where their support is doubtful is good.	Moral
9. Childbirth is more dangerous than abortion.	pro	A policy that protects the health of teenagers is good.	Moral
3. Without the policy, teenagers would seek unsafe abortions.	pro	A policy that protects the health of teenagers is good.	Moral
12. Hospital costs would rise.	con	A policy that results in the raising of hospital costs is bad.	Economic

On the face of it, with four "pro" arguments and only two "con" arguments, the "pro's" would appear to have it; but that is not necessarily the case. A single "con" argument may be so powerful as to overwhelm all arguments to the contrary. One way to put this possibility to a test is to rank order each set of criteria, i.e., the "pro" criteria and the "con" criteria, for either of two purposes. First, one may consider whether one criterion should be given precedence above all others or whether the final judgment rests on a choice between the highest ranking criterion in each list. Second, one may consider whether a combination of criteria, possibly utilizing criteria from both lists, can be strung together logically to form a principle that can be applied to the object and all like objects.

In this latter case, we might be willing to say, "A policy that protects the health of teenagers and does not raise hospital costs is good." The adoption of that principle would require us to judge the teenage abortion policy as unacceptable unless some amendment would prevent hospital costs from being affected. An indigent tax might be assessed to pay for the abortions, for example. While taxes could rise a bit, hospital costs would not, at least not for the reason of non-payment for these abortions.

Let us turn to the task of placing our criteria in rank order. The order, of course, is mine, as performed for this illustration.

RANK ORDER OF CRITERIA

	PRO		*CON*
10.	Own body use		
9. & 3.	Protect health	6.	Killing
8.	Child support	12.	Hospital costs

The issue that has been emerging, if it has not been apparent from the beginning of the illustration, becomes crystalline in this display. Either we judge the policy "good" allowing the pregnant girl to choose the employment of her own body and thereby inevitably destroying some fetuses (not all, of course, for some girls would choose to bear the child) or we judge the policy "bad" and thereby deny some girls the choice of their body use (not all, of course, for some would have chosen to bear the child anyway and others would seek abortions elsewhere).

In this posing of the issue, both criteria 10 and 6 must be satisfied; if they are not, the others do not matter.

How, then, is such an issue resolved? We have posed it in such a way that no remedies for the faults are available. The girls are pregnant; they will either abort or bear. If they are allowed to choose, some will choose to kill a potential human being. If they are not allowed to choose, some will be denied their choice of how their body will be used. The compromise, "We could give them their body rights, but not destroy fetuses" is not possible.

Thus, we are thrown on another kind of resolution. What higher standard can we bring to bear on these two to help us choose between them? To ask such a question implies the making of an assumption about the judging of standards (criteria) taken as value objects. I earlier asserted a relationship between standards and super standards. I claimed that the presence of a standard in one's repertoire of values *suggests* the earlier application of a super standard by which the repertory value was chosen or justified. The claim was made in full knowledge that many of our standards, as we all know, have not been blessed in this way. We have been given some standards by parents, colleagues, church or school and continue to hold to them naively without thought or examination.

Notwithstanding, I can assert a logical relationship between standards commonly held for judging value objects every day and super standards supposedly reserved for the judging of standards of the every day variety. In my dilemma over teenage abortions, I am motivated to search my set of super standards to find one that will help me judge between "fetus rights" and "body rights", to use convenient terms. Earlier I gave an example of such a super standard; a moral standard was pitted against an economic standard. It will not do in this issue to say, "When economics and morality are opposed, opt for morality," because "fetus rights" and "body rights" are both said to belong to the moral point of view.

What we need, then, is a super moral standard of the type that guides us in resolving moral dilemmas. One super standard that comes to mind declares, "In conflicts between moral standards, opt for the standard that is life confirming." By applying it, I would likely judge the abortion policy as bad, for the criterion that appears to be most clearly life confirming is the one that says the killing of human beings is bad.

However, when I begin to test this super standard as part of my justification for judging the abortion policy as bad, I discover that I also believe that some things, at least in some circumstances, are dearer than life. Surely, in cases, where the choice is between maintaining life, on the one hand, and preserving justice, freedom, or quality of life, or ending suffering, on the other, I would not always choose to maintain life at any cost.

As a means of determining what my apparent disclaimer of universal life confirmation means, I can construct a series of hypothetical examples that indicate the conditions and circumstances under which I might deny life to someone, including myself. I might support and participate in a war to preserve a semblance of justice and freedom; I might permit the withdrawal of extraordinary life support systems from a person in a hopeless coma; I might allow the abortion of a monster fetus; I might approve the withholding of life sustaining drugs and the administration of powerful pain killing drugs for persons in the final throes of cancer.

While neither the abstract list nor the more concrete list is represented as definitive, both indicate that some circumstances are sufficiently distressing for me to consider taking a life or at least allowing death to occur without extraordinary intervention. I have thus discovered that one of my super standards that could be used to support a choice between two (or more) conflicting moral standards really says, *"Where two (or more) moral standards conflict, opt for the standard that is life confirming except in cases where life confirmation would result in a drastic loss of justice, freedom, or quality of life or would result in severe and unending suffering."*

It now remains for me to decide whether any of the criteria implied in my newly phrased "except" clause are met by the facts or definitions in the case at hand. That is, does it now appear that a consequence of *not* having the policy would be "a drastic loss of justice, freedom, quality of life or . . . severe and unending suffering?" We have already decided that not having the policy would by "life confirming" because fetuses would not be killed by means of policy action.

I decide that I can disregard the suffering and quality of life criteria. While having the babies would certainly result in some temporary physical suffering and probably cause some mental anguish for a time, neither, I now estimate, would likely be severe or long lasting enough to qualify under *this* standard. However, justice and freedom may well be abridged in some ways. In my deliberations, I toy with the notion that it seems unjust to the pregnant girls to single them out to bear quite alone the consequences of their misadventures with sex; but I pass this up for the moment to examine the freedom issue. "Is denying these pregnant girls the right to decide whether their bodies will be used as the habitat of these fetuses," I ask myself, "a significant abridgement of their freedom as persons?"

Suppose that I say that it is not a severe loss of freedom. Must I then return to my newly amended super standard and, for good measure, amend it further to declare, "all pregnancies excepted?" Do I also thereby begin to lean toward the notion that females have a primordial function and ineluctable obligation to bear children that cannot be erased or changed by a reconceptualization of their role in life?

Suppose, on the other hand, that I say that denying these persons or any female persons the right to decide whether they shall remain pregnant is a severe loss of freedom. Must I amend my super standard to read, "including all pregnancies?" Moreover, do I thus tend toward the notion that bodies are solely private possessions subject only to the will of the owners to be in any manner employed, mutilated, or destroyed?

Obviously, I leaped too far in both instances. The implications of primordial female role and willful bodily destructions, though plausible, are gratuitous and outrageous. My justification for expressing them as well as the phrases, "all pregnancies excepted," and "included all pregnancies," is their possible usefulness in forcing myself toward a decision. When I read the outrageous statements, I am forced to respond with "I don't believe either is a necessary implication; but I would come nearer believing the first one than the second," "Were these both proper implications, I would be most in agreement with the second one."

Suppose, then, that I actually find less objectionable the statement related to my supposition that denying a pregnant girl the choice of ending or completing her pregnancy is a severe loss of freedom. What does that mean with respect to my judgment about the policy on teenage abortion? Logically, it commits me to the following arguments:

If two moral standards conflict and one is life confirming and one is not, then choosing the life confirming one is good.

Between the moral standards "body rights" and "fetus rights", "fetus rights" is life confirming and "body rights" is not.

Choosing "fetus rights" is good.

However,

if two moral standards conflict over the issue of life vs. freedom, the standard that confirms freedom should take precedence.

The moral standards "fetus rights" and "body rights" conflict over the issue of life vs freedom where "fetus rights" confirms life and "body rights" confirms freedom. "Body rights" should take precedence.

thus:

A policy that permits a person to decide on the use of one's body (i.e., "body rights") is good.

The teenage abortion policy permits a person to decide on the use of one's body since 'demand abortion' means deciding on the use of one's body.

The teenage abortion policy is good.

The illustration which began with the posing of a value object, "the demand abortion of pregnancies in unwed teenage women in the first trimester of pregnancy," is successfully concluded with the judgment above that "the teenage abortion policy is good." Between those two statements, I have tried, with as little tedium as possible, to illustrate the process of value analysis. I apologize that "as little tedium as possible" means a great lot of tedium, indeed. Even so, I have bypassed many of the arguments and developments that I might have taken.

It is hoped that the illustration and the rest of this article may help teachers, and others who intend to discuss values, to understand what is involved in unpacking the values bag.

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